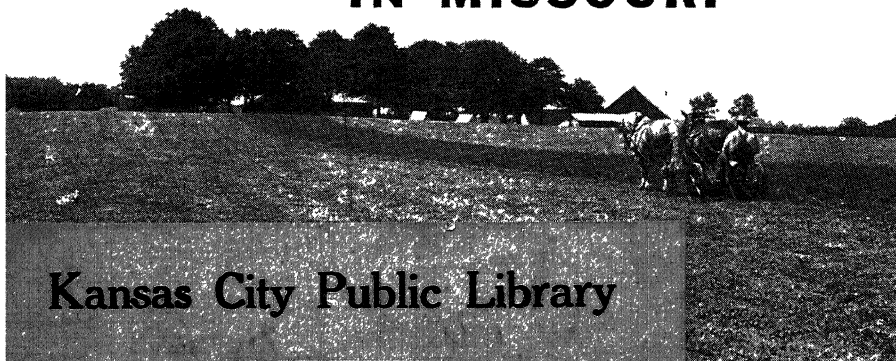


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RURAL EDUCATION AND RURAL LIFE

IN
MISSOURI



REPORT
of the
COOPERATIVE STUDY OF RURAL EDUCATION
AND RURAL LIFE

1945 ✓

Supplement to the
Ninety-Sixth Report of the Public Schools

Issued by
ROY SCANTLIN
State Superintendent of Public Schools
JEFFERSON CITY, MISSOURI

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FOREWORD

The material presented in this report on Rural Education and Rural Life in Missouri is for the consideration of boards of education, teachers, patrons, members of the General Assembly and other citizens of Missouri.

I feel greatly indebted to the Missouri State Teachers Association, the State Colleges, the School of Education and College of Agriculture of the University of Missouri, Lincoln University, Farmers' Union, Missouri Farmers' Association, Farm Bureau Federation, State Grange, Missouri Library Commission and all others who helped to prepare this material. Especially, do I wish to thank Dr. A. G. Capps for his untiring and able leadership in directing this work, and I wish to extend to Dr. Loyd E. Grimes my sincere appreciation for his splendid assistance as a co-worker with Dr. Capps in this study.

It is my hope that this bulletin will call attention to certain problems in public education, that it will stimulate progressive changes in public sentiment and make possible the passage of school legislation in harmony with the new Constitution and the postwar needs.

Roy Scantlin

State Superintendent of Public Schools

Cooperative Study of Rural Life and Education

Headquarters—State Department of Education

Jefferson City, Missouri

June 1, 1945

To the Members of the Administrative Committee

Gentlemen:

The Technical Study Staff herewith presents its report on Rural Education and Rural Life in Missouri. A great deal of care and time has been spent in preparing the material. It is believed that the facts presented herein are reliable and reasonably complete with regard to the conditions described.

The Staff feels that it has located some of the more significant problems confronting rural education and related rural life. A large amount of relevant data has been gathered together and organized with respect to the solution of these problems. These data have been carefully examined to deduce suggestions for action. The problems, the data, and the suggestions for action are presented in this report.

While the Staff offers no apology for what it presents, it does wish to say that much more work needs to be done in order to bring the results of the Cooperative Study to successful fruition.

The Staff wishes to express its appreciation of the fine cooperation of all persons with whom it has come in contact. Their contribution has been invaluable.

Respectfully submitted,

A. G. CAPPS, Director

Coöperative Study of Rural Education and Rural Life

AGC:jbm

REPORT OF THE CITIZENS' ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Membership of the Citizens' Advisory Committee for the Cooperative Study of Rural Education and Rural Life was made up of representatives from the four leading agricultural organizations of the state, school boards, bankers, churches, women's clubs, parent-teachers' associations, libraries, superintendents of schools and the press. They held several meetings with the administrative committee and technical study staff while the program was in a formative stage, to suggest further studies which would be helpful. When the final report of the technical study staff was submitted only minor changes or additions were made before recommendations were adopted.

Members of the Citizens' Advisory Committee were fully appreciative of the vast amount of work accomplished by the administrative committee and the technical staff in assembling facts and information on which to base conclusions. They were impressed with the evident intention to present a report which would cover the subject completely and would be received by public officials as well as private citizens, as a real contribution in solving the problems of rural education and rural welfare in the State.

Many changes have taken place in rural education since the last survey was made some sixteen years ago. Missouri rural schools have been reduced in number as well as in the average enrollment. There are many schools with attendance too small for efficient work. On the other hand rural high schools show a large increase in numbers and in total attendance. However, there are too many small high schools with attendance under 100 pupils that cannot give courses adequate to meet good educational standards. The only way to correct these various difficulties is to establish adequate school service areas. This can be brought about through full cooperation of local school committees, county school committees, the State Board of Education and the state legislature working toward the desired end.

There is an admitted need for better and more modern school buildings, adequate equipment to facilitate the work, better trained teachers, improvement in transportation and

adequate financing. There is also a real need for modern curricular offerings suited to the lives of rural boys and girls as well as a great need for teachers who have had special training for rural work.

Good health accompanied with adequate diet, with complete health records for each child, health examinations and, where necessary, medical and dental care should be provided so that these children when they reach maturity shall be sound in body. Ample libraries, extension in adult education and when possible the development of specific schools for essential training in agriculture and home economics should be provided.

Rural education that is socially desirable, educationally efficient and financially sound will make a direct contribution, not only to the community, but to the state. It should result in better housing, better health and better living. It should encourage better farming, better facilities in the home and greater growth of rural churches. It should bring about an increase in the scope and efficiency of all farm organizations.

It is the function and the duty of the legislature to provide the laws and to give such financial aid that Missouri rural schools will rank with the best in efficiency and in the results attained. Provision for equal education for all regardless of race or color, whether located in the best or the poorest sections of the state, with the ultimate development of a well trained and healthy and efficient citizenship, is a duty which the state, as well as the county or local school organization, should hold as an ideal.

The Citizens' Advisory Committee members have considered it both a duty and a pleasure to contribute their time and effort in helping to develop this cooperative study designed to improve conditions in the rural schools and in the farming communities of the state. The recommendations are thoroughly sound. They should meet with the entire approval of all who are interested in better schools and in a more wholesome rural life in Missouri.

WILBUR A. COCHEL,
Chairman, Citizens' Advisory Committee.

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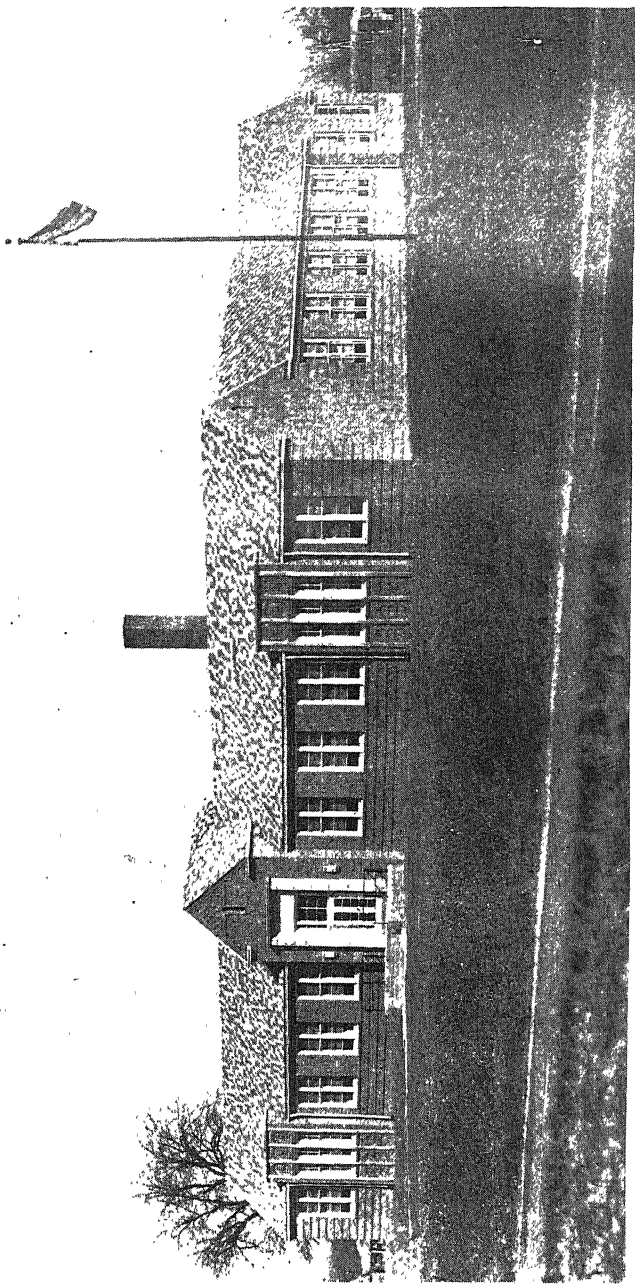
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Rural Education and Rural Life in Missouri



A Modern Missouri School Building.

Rural Education and Rural Life in Missouri

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

MISSOURI owes a great debt to her rural schools— a debt that can never be paid. Originating as a pioneer institution, the rural school was well-adapted to the needs of the times. It molded the lives of untold numbers of sterling men and women who have made the State strong. Admirably fitted to the open country of a free nation the rural school has been largely responsible for the success of our democratic ideals. In this, Missouri shares with the whole nation. Without the far reaching influence of this rural institution in the stabilization of our rural civilization there is a grave question whether our democratic form of government would have survived.

The influence of the rural school on the lives and habits of those privileged to attend it can best be judged by the results obtained. The spirit of honest endeavor, the strength of purpose and the wholesome ideals which the well-ordered rural school engenders have a very far reaching influence. The mingling of all ages of boys and girls in the same schoolroom and on the same playground, the long walks to and from school in all kinds of weather, the home chores that must be done before and after school hours develops a resourcefulness and a spirit of independence rarely equalled among urban school children. All these influences combine to establish a steadfastness of purpose and habits of work which make for stability and success.

Unfortunately the rural school is losing ground. The average number of boys and girls in the one room school has declined greatly. The total number of rural schools has also declined. The quality of the teaching all too frequently has deteriorated. While all of these are the results of rapidly changing rural conditions, the effect on rural education and on the thinking of rural people demands immediate attention. The very fact that rural parents are using existing facilities to trans-

port their children to town schools in increasing numbers indicates that they are dissatisfied with the present day rural school. While this offers the children better immediate facilities at both elementary and high school levels, the ultimate effect may lead them away from the country. It is of course true that there is not room for all rural boys and girls to remain on farms, yet a proper proportion of the good ones should. The country has the same requirement for leadership as has the city. There is consequently as great a need for good rural schools and for a forward looking plan of rural education as ever. Moreover, the possibilities are greater. The ideal is still a good rural school whether it serves a large area or a small one, whether it combines several or many districts into a single service area with a school having rural ideals or whether it is a good single room school. The important thing is to provide good facilities for education and still preserve those rural ideals, that strength of character and that steadfastness of purpose so necessary to wholesome country living and to an expanding rural culture.

Purposes of the Study

The general purpose of the cooperative study of rural education and rural life was to gather together significant facts and opinions and organize them with respect to some of the more important problems confronting rural education and related rural life in Missouri. Then, on the basis of an evaluation of the evidence in hand, it was desired to make suggestions for the further improvement of conditions in rural education and rural life.

As a guiding principle of evaluation and action all committees connected with the cooperative study adopted the following: *that a dynamic program of education, available to all people, is the most significant safeguard of our democracy in this age of far-reaching changes of the social order. This educational program must not only keep abreast of these changes but must be universally available if the democratic way of life is to be imbedded in the minds of our rural people.*

After a number of conferences within and between the several committees and previews of currently available data, both facts and opinions, it was agreed that the Technical Study

Staff would gather material relative to the following areas and problems in Missouri:

1. General conditions with respect to public education.
2. General overview of rural education.
3. Special consideration of the small rural school.
4. General overview of public elementary and secondary education in districts maintaining high schools.
5. Special consideration of the small high schools.
6. An examination of the practices and possibilities of school service areas.
7. An analysis of rural life as related to rural education.
8. Some educational, social and economic factors affecting the rural Negro population.
9. Suggestions for further improvement of rural education and rural life.

Definition of "Rural"

The word "rural" is used very broadly in the presentation that follows. In general it refers to the distinctly rural one-or more-room rural elementary school, and the districts maintaining high schools that enroll students from the rural districts. In fact, a great majority of the schools in Missouri are more or less rural. Furthermore, the schools in the metropolitan areas are affected more or less by the kind of education and life that is maintained in the distinctly rural schools because of the migration from the rural to the metropolitan areas.

Sources of Data

The data herein presented were gathered from official records and reports of the State Department of Education, The United States Census, and various other official records and reports. In some instances information blanks were used to collect data, both facts and opinions, and their validity, reliability, and representativeness were carefully considered before inclusion in this report. In order to save space in the report citations are frequently omitted. However, the original data and the sources are on file in the offices of the State Department of Education.

Specific Guiding Principles

As the work of the committees proceeded it soon became evident that specific guiding principles would have to be adopted from authoritative sources or be developed *de novum* by the committees. These specifics became necessary in order to direct the work logically and efficiently, to evaluate the findings, and to consider suggestions for further improvement of existing conditions and practices. Therefore, one of the first steps taken by the committees was to adopt the following statement and the two lists of objectives.

The objectives of the good life are neither rural nor urban. Rural people of today strive for and should have the varied satisfactions available to urban populations. However, it is recognized that social, economic and spatial factors may so operate as to make many of these more difficult to obtain for peoples on the land. This attainment, nevertheless, should constitute an objective for the state and the Nation as an important part of our national well being. It is the greater difficulty, rather than difference in objectives, which call for a restatement of rural needs.

Objectives for Rural Life

1. A prosperous, happy and contented rural citizenry whose farming operations provide an abundant living while conserving and enriching the natural resources of the state.
2. The opportunity for farm people of the state to secure those advantages which people living in a democracy and *in our time* have a right to expect.
3. The development in every community of the state of those features of rural living which contribute to the utmost in making life in Missouri socially rich and satisfying.

Objectives for Rural Education

1. Rural education should train people more adequately to assume their responsibilities as citizens and leaders in the community, in the state and in the Nation.

2. Rural education should contribute to the enrichment of the cultural life of rural people by enabling them to become better informed on all the issues of a changing world.
3. Rural education should contribute to the development of and to the maintenance of a high level of physical, moral and ethical ideals.
4. Rural education should enable rural people to develop effectively those skills necessary to the improvement in the well-being of the individual and of the community.
5. Rural education should be rooted in the love of the land and the rural way of life and at the same time should be varied and rich enough to prepare those *who must leave the land* for successful adjustment to urban occupations and urban life.

Furthermore, the problem of providing adequate educational opportunities for rural children is not peculiar to Missouri, but is national in scope. The first White House Conference on Rural Education called by President Roosevelt on October 3, 4, and 5, 1944 presented the following significant charter of education for rural children which also became a guide in the deliberations of the committees:

A Charter of Education for Rural Children

1. Every rural child has the right to a satisfactory, modern elementary education.
2. Every rural child has the right to a satisfactory, modern secondary education.
3. Every rural child has the right to an educational program that bridges the gap between home and school, and between school and adult life.
4. Every rural child has the right through his school to health services, educational and vocational guidance, library facilities, recreational activities, and, where needed, school lunches and pupil transportation facilities at public expense.

5. Every rural child has the right to teachers, supervisors, and administrators who know rural life and who are educated to deal effectively with the problems peculiar to rural schools.
6. Every rural child has the right to educational service and guidance during the entire year and full-time attendance in a school that is open for not less than nine months in each year for at least twelve years.
7. Every rural child has the right to attend school in a satisfactory, modern building.
8. Every rural child has the right through the school to participate in community life and culture.
9. Every rural child has the right to a local school system sufficiently strong to provide all the services required for a modern education.
10. Every rural child has the right to have the tax resources of his community, State, and Nation used to guarantee him an American standard of educational opportunity.

THESE ARE THE RIGHTS OF THE RURAL CHILD BECAUSE THEY ARE THE RIGHTS OF EVERY CHILD REGARDLESS OF RACE, OR COLOR, OR SITUATION, WHEREVER HE MAY LIVE UNDER THE UNITED STATES FLAG.

Origin of the Study

Seven careful and systematic studies or surveys of our public school system have been made during the past thirty-four years. These studies have heightened the visibility of the strong or weak phases of our schools. The publicity based on, and following each of these studies has informed the citizens of Missouri of the conditions of their schools. On the basis of this information and other authentic data, many progressive school laws have been enacted.

The last comprehensive study of our school system was made in 1929, some fifteen years ago. It is generally agreed that this study formed the basis of the 1931 School Law. Under this law, with minor amendments from time to time, our schools have been operating for more than a decade. There has been an insistent demand by lay and by educational leaders that it

is the part of good wisdom to make an inventory of our schools as soon as practicable. It seems that enough time has elapsed since the passage of the 1931 School Law to make its desirable and its undesirable features visible, if a close and comprehensive study were made.

In December, 1943, the State Superintendent of Public Schools, Honorable Roy Scantlin, called a meeting in Jefferson City, at which time, Dr. Floyd Reeves of the University of Chicago, addressed certain educational leaders, such as, superintendents of schools, presidents and deans of the various state educational institutions. The speaker presented the need for a study of the problems of rural education in order that we may be prepared for the post-war period.

The State Educational Conference met in a called session immediately following the foregoing meeting and voted to consider further the need for a study of rural education. Thereupon, the State Superintendent of Public Schools appointed a committee composed of Dean M. F. Miller, College of Agriculture, University of Missouri; President G. W. Diemer, Central Missouri State Teachers College; and Dr. Loyd E. Grimes, Assistant State Superintendent of Public Schools.

This committee met in Jefferson City on January 14 and again on February 3, 1944 and formulated recommendations which were placed before the State Educational Conference at its regular meeting in Columbia on February 4, 1944. The committee had recommended a fact-finding study. After due consideration, the Educational Conference adopted a resolution favoring the study on a cooperative basis. The special committee previously appointed, was asked to continue its work as an implementing or administrative committee to obtain funds and to organize the study.

The School of Education of the University of Missouri, agreed to provide the services of Dr. A. G. Capps to direct the cooperative study. The State Department of Education agreed to furnish office quarters, assistance by members of the Department Staff, secretarial help and printing costs. Later, the Missouri State Teachers Association, the various farm organizations, the five state teachers colleges, the College of Agriculture of the University of Missouri, and Lincoln University pledged funds to defray the expenses of the study. Then followed the organization of the various committees listed on the preceding pages.

CHAPTER II

DEVELOPMENT OF THE MISSOURI SCHOOL SYSTEM

FROM the beginning of statehood the General Assembly of Missouri has assumed full responsibility for the organization and control of education. The majority of people since that time have considered the business of educating their children to be of primary importance to the welfare of the state.

The first attempt on the part of the state to found any kind of a system of education was made in 1825 with the passage of a law for the management and protection of the school lands and for the government of the common schools.

However, the actual beginnings of a comprehensive public school system were created by the passage of the Geyer Act of 1839. The congressional township, under this act, formed a school township. It could be organized for school purposes by a majority of the qualified voters of the township petitioning the county court for such organization. The directors of the township had the power to divide it into school districts.

The corporate powers of the school township were vested in the commissioner of township schools, at least two and not more than four inspectors of common schools and a township clerk. These officers constituted the ex-officio school board of the township. The officers of the school district were three trustees, a clerk, and a collector. The trustees were responsible for the educational administration of their respective districts. Other provisions of this important law provided for the establishment of the State University, and the creation of the office of State Superintendent of Common Schools.

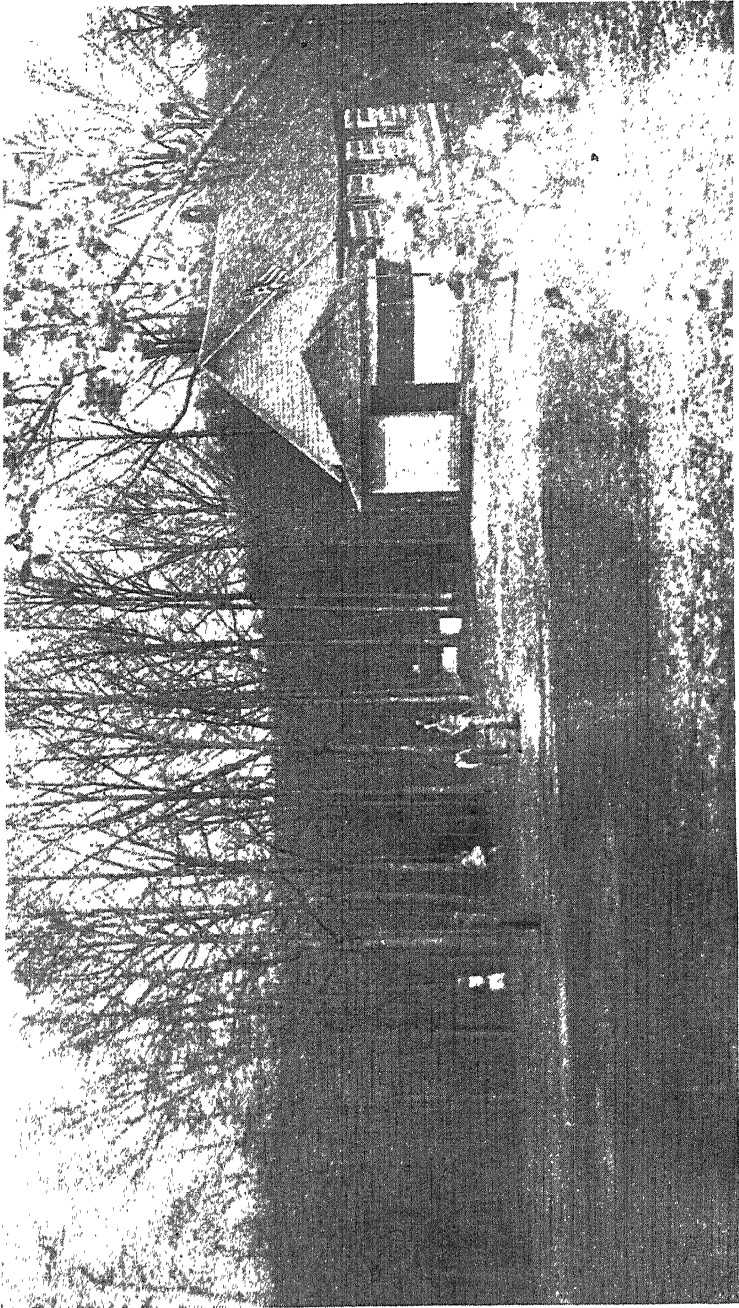
By 1853 a major revision of the school law became necessary. The Geyer Act was too cumbersome to meet the needs of a pioneer society, and the General Assembly after careful study made a thorough revision. The Kelly Act of 1853 practically abolished the township as a unit of school administration. Consequently, the system became a local autonomous district plan with a county commissioner and three district trustees elected by the voters of each district to manage the affairs of the schools. Thus the year 1853 marks the beginning of the small school districts of seven to nine square miles in area.

The Civil War caused a complete disorganization of the infant school system. At the close of that conflict, and after the adoption of a new constitution, in 1865, a new school code became necessary. In 1866 the General Assembly passed an act re-establishing the township as the unit for the organization of the public school system. The former districts were designated as sub-districts and were under the management and control of a board of directors who were in turn subject to the township board. The board of directors of each sub-district was composed of three members elected for a period of three years, one retiring each year. The chief officer of the sub-district board was the clerk. By virtue of his office he became a member of the township board of education. The township board was a body corporate, and so was invested with title, custody, and care of all school houses and school property of the sub-districts. In addition it was invested with full control over all high schools in the township.

A separate act was passed in 1866 providing for the organization of schools in cities, towns and villages. This law with certain modifications is still the basic law for the organization of the cities, towns and consolidated school districts of the State.

The period immediately following the Civil War was one in which the bitterness engendered by that conflict had not ceased and the problem of universal free education had not been accepted by a large number of Missourians. Many of the inhabitants had been deprived of their citizenship, and there was a definite feeling on the part of many people that they were taxed to support schools and build school houses, the principles of which they repudiated. As a result the adjourned session of the Twenty-seventh General Assembly in 1874 enacted into law an entirely new school code. Like the preceding codes, many of its provisions were borrowed from earlier laws. However, the chief difference in this new law and its predecessors was the abandonment of the township plan of organization. Again, Missouri changed to the small district system which was to form the pattern of small district organization to the present time.

Until 1874 the General Assembly had not definitely decided upon a pattern for the development of school organization and administration. The pendulum had swung from the township to the local district and back again to the township, but by the



Missouri Still Has Some Log School Houses.

Photo by Townsend Godsey, Hollister.

code of 1874 back to the small district. Consequently, the period from 1874 to 1910 saw the rapid increase in the number of small school districts until they numbered more than 10,000. The traditional box type school house at almost every crossroad in the state became the pattern for the cultural development of the rural communities. With no centralized control or supervision of education, the schools in the rural areas did not keep pace with the social and economic needs of the State.

In 1874 the State was emerging from the reconstruction period and there seemed to be sufficient justification for returning much of the authority for the control of the schools to the local people. Also, there was a definite need for more schools. These schools served not only the children of their several communities but in addition served as cultural and social centers for the people living in the districts. The General Assembly recognized this function by permitting boards to use the school houses for adult meetings. Adult education was truly one of the early functions of these schools.

As early as 1875, one year after the enactment of the new school code, the state superintendent at that time pointed out certain weaknesses in the measure. Every one of his successors has also called the attention of the people to the need for a fundamental reorganization, and the elimination of many of the small districts.

The second decade of the twentieth century was one of the most significant from an educational point of view in the history of public education in Missouri. Organizations and leaders seemed to recognize more clearly the educational needs of the State and were active in calling these needs to the attention of the public. Probably more progressive school legislation was enacted during this period than at any other time in our educational history. A list of a small number of these laws illustrates the reawakening of the public to the deficiencies in the public school system. The Buford-Colley Consolidation Law, the Crossley Teacher-Training Law, and the free textbook law were only a few of the important measures that profoundly influenced the development of the public school system. But there were certain problems that were inherent in the basic school code that materially retarded the adequate development of the public schools.

As has been indicated, educational progress in Missouri has been a slow developmental process. The scientific movement in education, no doubt, influenced several attempts to evaluate the state's educational needs by state-wide school surveys. Probably these surveys have more profoundly affected educational progress in the state than any other single factor. Traditionally, Missouri has been a conservative state, slow to change, but when people are once convinced a change is desirable they have accepted it. One citizen has aptly expressed the situation by saying: "It takes Missouri a generation to get anything done educationally," and a study of the facts seems to bear out this statement.

Seven state surveys, covering various phases of the state educational system, have been made. Recommendations included in these reports have not always been immediately accepted either by the General Assembly or the people, but they have greatly influenced the General Assembly in adopting educational measures which have made for educational progress.

In 1912 the Russell Sage Foundation issued a report ranking the school systems of the various states of the Union. The people of the state felt very much chagrined to learn that Missouri, with her vast resources, standing first in the Union in many important products, ranked thirty-second educationally. Educational, political and lay leaders began at once to do something about the report. It was recognized that one of the chief problems for the improvement of education was the adequate training and preparation of teachers. In July, 1914, Governor Elliot W. Major issued an invitation to the Carnegie Foundation to make a study of this problem, and in his request made the following statement:

One of the chief problems confronting this and other states is a wholesome supply of adequately trained and prepared teachers. In this matter Missouri has made great progress during the last eighteen months. We have a great university and five splendid normal schools, and teacher-training courses in about 75 high schools. The question, however, is ever open as to what is the best preparation and what is the duty of the State in meeting it, and how can the State secure the greatest benefit at a minimum of expense.

The Carnegie Foundation accepted the Governor's invitation in November, 1914 and formally inaugurated the study.

The president of the Foundation met with about one hundred of the leading workers in the public schools, normal schools and colleges of the State and secured their unanimous endorsement of and pledge of cooperation with the undertaking.

The inquiry was projected in two main divisions. The first consisted of a careful examination of the various institutions in the State engaged in preparing teachers for the public schools. The second division included a complete census of the teachers of the State with reference to the training they had received. An exhaustive report was presented, but for some reason it was not published until 1920. The painstaking work of the survey staff in each of the institutions had a salutary effect upon those institutions.

The report, when it was presented was, a voluminous one and the proposals were forward-looking for the improvement of teacher education. The chief problem confronting the State of Missouri, as presented in the report was:

how best, with state funds and through state control, to insure adequate education for all its youth throughout the twelve-year period terminating in general when the pupil becomes eighteen years of age. Adequate education is primarily a matter of competent teachers and the provision of competent teachers is a single, clearly-defined task, out-ranking in importance all other state obligations, save only the maintenance of social order and the protection of the public health, and is superior even to these except in the sense that without them it could not be achieved.

Although the Carnegie Report was probably the most comprehensive ever made of the teacher-training problems of any state, it was felt by many leaders that a study of the public school system as a whole was necessary. On June 25, 1917, Governor Fredrick D. Gardner requested the State Superintendent of Public Schools, Uel W. Lamkin, to make such a study. His letter to Mr. Lamkin contained the following:

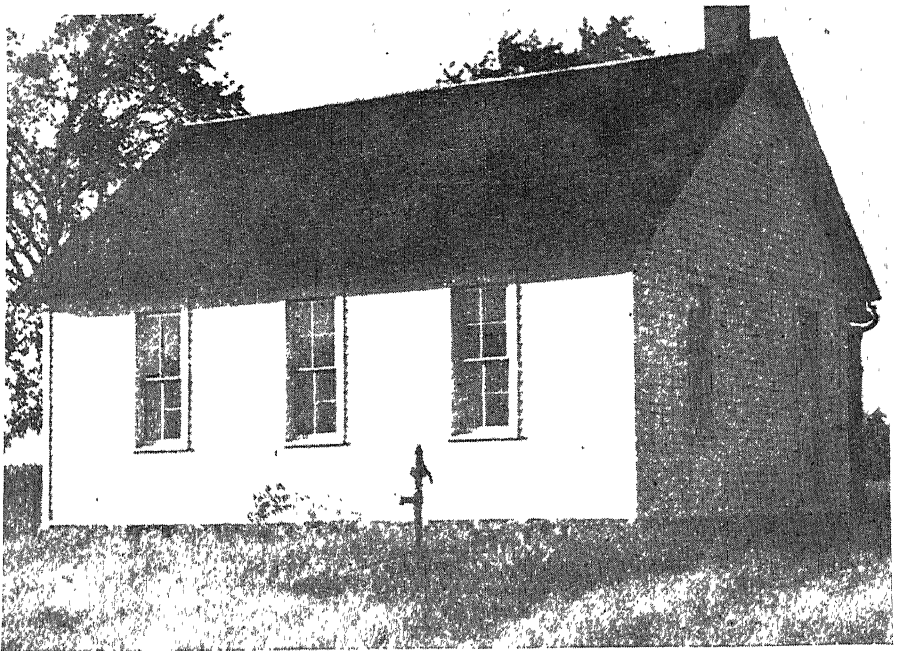
The statement has frequently been made that the Missouri public school system ranked low in efficiency among the systems of the states of the Union. If this is true, we should take steps as soon as possible to remedy the conditions. If it is not true, we ought to be able to make authoritative reply to the statement.

He requested the State Superintendent, together with the Missouri State Teachers Association and the public and private

educational institutions, to make a survey of the elementary schools of the State, particularly the one-room rural schools. He requested that this survey cover the physical conditions of the schools, their support, methods of instruction, adaptability of the courses of study to the needs of their communities, qualifications of teachers, and other facts bearing upon the efficiency of the school system of the State.

The State Superintendent of Public Schools decided that the study could be made better by citizens of Missouri than by an outside agency, because in his opinion citizens of the State would be more familiar with local needs than would non-residents.

The Governor in his request for the study had directed that the report of the Russell Sage Foundation be either substantiated or authoritatively refuted and therefore the data presented were similar to those presented in that report. The Russell Sage Foundation study had used ten tests of efficiency in ranking the states of the Union educationally. These included such items as a comparison of the length of the school year, attendance of pupils, high school enrollments, per capita ex-



A Typical Missouri Rural School Building.

penditure, expenditure per child, school plant, teachers salaries, city superintendents' salaries and county superintendents' salaries.

Detailed examination was made of 625 rural schools in eighty-six counties. These findings showed that Missouri's general rank was in the lower half of the states of the Union, and that the six years preceding the publication of the report that the State was losing rank and that many of the states with less resources were overtaking Missouri in providing better educational opportunities. Another significant conclusion reached was that the plan of school organization and methods of administration of education were not adequate to permit Missouri to advance as rapidly as her sister states without positive measures being taken to remedy her defects. Another conclusion of the study emphasized the inequalities of educational opportunities in the State. The inequalities of educational opportunities for rural areas that were emphasized in the conclusions produced an insistent demand for a change in the basic organization of the county educational system.

Then a county unit bill was introduced in the Fiftieth General Assembly in 1919, but was allowed to die on the informal calendar. Two years later a similar measure was introduced and passed after probably the hardest fought controversy ever encountered by an educational measure. This law was one of the most significant measures ever adopted in the State's educational history. It changed the administration of education from the local district to the county and placed in the hands of a professional county superintendent of schools sufficient power to bring about improvement of the schools in the rural areas. Due to the natural antagonism of many rural people to such a change, and to the strenuous efforts of some members of the General Assembly, this law was defeated by a referendum.

Another important effect of the report was its influence on the Constitutional Convention of 1922. For ten years prior to the adoption of an amendment providing for the calling of a Constitutional Convention, educational leaders had been in the fore-front in urging a complete revision of the State's organic law. At the general election in 1920, a new plan for calling a Constitutional Convention was adopted and a convention was authorized by a vote of the people in August, 1921. A thorough

reorganization of the State's administration of education was adopted by the Convention, but it was defeated when it was submitted to the people.

The cooperative study of the rural schools of Missouri published in 1918 helped influence the thinking of political and lay leaders regarding the weaknesses and the inequalities of the State's school system and brought about an insistent demand for a change. The two important and fundamental changes that were enacted by the General Assembly and the Constitutional Convention were defeated when they were submitted to the electorate.

The third important survey of public education in Missouri was an outgrowth probably of the failure of the County Unit Law and the desire of the school leaders for continued progress especially in the rural field. The plan for another study had its origin in a series of conferences called by the State Superintendent of Public Schools, Charles A. Lee, in the fall of 1923. General plans for conducting the survey were formulated and two committees were appointed, one called a professional committee, and the other an advisory lay committee. Dr. A. G. Capps of the University of Missouri who directed the 1918 study was again appointed director of the study in February, 1924, and work was begun immediately. Dr. H. J. Waters, editor of the *Kansas City Weekly Star*, was chosen as the chairman of the lay committee. Dr. Eugene Fair, who had led the fight in the General Assembly for the County Unit Law and who was a member of the staff of the Kirksville State Teachers College, was appointed Chairman of the Professional Committee. The two chief purposes of the Missouri School Survey of 1924 were outlined as follows: To collect and organize a substantial body of significant facts regarding a limited number of the more important educational problems confronting Missouri, and to place this material before the people of the State for their guidance in solving their educational problems.

The problems studied were school support, county school administration and supervision, certification of teachers, educational needs in typical counties of the State and educational records and reports. An excellent report was presented. Conclusions and recommendations were included in each one of the major areas of the study which were in many instances similar to those presented in the Cooperative Study of Rural

Schools of Missouri in 1918. The inequality of educational opportunities, especially in the rural areas, was again one of the salient points brought out in the survey.

The chief contribution of the 1924 Survey was its continued emphasis upon the grave inequalities in education in Missouri. No doubt the survey materially influenced the General Assembly to change the Buford-Colley Consolidation Law in 1925. Due primarily to the leadership of State Superintendent of Schools, Charles A. Lee, two new sections were added to that law which materially increased the amount of state school revenue available to consolidated districts. The purpose of the 1925 law was to bring about consolidations and this objective was achieved, but a new kind of consolidation resulted. Many small towns added a few acres from some adjoining district and became consolidated schools for the purpose of receiving state aid, thus not changing the administrative or the attendance unit in any appreciable manner. This law had the immediate effect of bringing about many new consolidations but a very slight decrease in the total number of rural districts. However, probably the chief contribution of the 1924 Survey was to keep the attention of the people centered upon the inequalities of educational opportunities within the State.

As a result of the continued agitation for an improvement in the State's educational system, Governor Caulfield in his inaugural address, January 14, 1929, spoke to the General Assembly at considerable length on the school problem in the State. He recommended

that the General Assembly make provision by law for the appointment of a commission, preferably to consist, in part at least, of members from each branch of the General Assembly, and the State Superintendent of Schools, with authority and sufficient appropriation to make a survey of the school situation in Missouri, and that you also authorize the Governor to call a statewide conference to meet and advise with such commission as to measures to be recommended to the General Assembly.

The General Assembly acted favorably on Governor Caulfield's recommendation and passed a bill providing for the appointment of a commission of seven members to be appointed by the Governor. The bill passed the House by a majority of

101 to 12, and won unanimous approval in the Senate. The Commission was authorized to inspect and examine all departments of the state government including eleemosynary, penal, educational institutions and public schools, and to make a report on or before November 30, 1929.

As a result of this comprehensive survey the General Assembly of 1931 passed some far reaching school legislation. The measure included twenty-one sections and was approved by the Governor on April 23, 1931. Among other things it provided for the creation of county districting boards, whose duty it was to divide the county into enlarged school districts of convenient size and of contiguous territory. No existing district could be divided. Each of the new districts should have at least an assessed valuation of one million five hundred thousand dollars or an area of at least fifty square miles. These new districts could lie in more than one county.

Before an election could be called it was necessary for such election to be demanded by fifty petitioners of the proposed district, with at least five signers from each district. Each district voted as a unit and if one of them rejected the proposition the proposed new district failed of formation.

The effects of the economic depression were being felt at the time and the bill was supported by large groups who regarded it as a tax relief measure. The law, when passed, made some revolutionary changes in the state aid requirements. School districts were not required to vote a school levy for school purposes greater than twenty cents on the one hundred dollars valuation in order to participate in state aid funds. Districts eligible for state aid under this section were to receive, as the first step, an equalization quota by which the district was enabled to have a minimum guarantee, together with local funds, of seven hundred fifty dollars for each elementary teaching unit and one thousand dollars for each high school teaching unit. Any district that was entitled to more money under the previously existing teacher and attendance quotas and the old consolidation aid law could continue to receive such aid.

The tuition of non-resident high school pupils was to be paid in part by the state. The state guaranteed fifty dollars of the total amount of the tuition of each non-resident pupil in average daily attendance and the local district was required

to pay the additional cost not to exceed the per pupil cost in the high school attended.

The state also assumed the cost of transportation up to three dollars per month for each high school student in average daily attendance transported a distance of two miles or more. The 1933 session of the General Assembly amended the transportation law by making it apply to pupils transported across district lines as well as to those transported within their own district.

The matter of providing building aid was changed under the 1931 school law to permit any consolidated or enlarged district to receive aid on a new building at the rate of one thousand dollars for each school building abandoned as a result of a new school building.

One of the chief purposes for the enactment of the 1931 School Law was to create enlarged school districts. The results of the law, however, have been to stifle the enlargement of districts. By guaranteeing a minimum of an eight months term of school and by granting state aid to permit the attainment of this objective, the state has actually frozen local district enlargement. Districts did not consolidate and although redistricting boards carried out the requirements of the law regarding this matter, the voters in most instances failed to call elections for the purpose of voting on the proposition. For this reason the period following 1931 has actually seen the cessation of the consolidation movement in the state. The principle of the State's assuming the obligation for the payment of high school tuition and transportation brought about many of the advantages of consolidation to the rural areas. With the excellent highway system that had been built during the decade preceding the enactment of the 1931 School Law, transportation became a reality throughout the entire state with the result that high school facilities were made available to practically all of the children in the entire state. Towns and villages although not a part of an enlarged district actually achieved that function by transporting children from a wide area to a central high school.

From the foregoing brief summary of the development of the State's educational system it is evident that remarkable progress has been achieved in the education of the youth of Missouri. It is also clear that the educational system in many

respects has not kept pace with the development of some of our other social and economic institutions. Furthermore, the present framework of the system is a patchwork that was based primarily upon the needs of a pioneer society. The educational surveys that have been made have probably had more influence than any other single factor in acquainting the people with their educational needs. The real progress that has been achieved has been due to the vision of educational and lay leaders who have been able to detect the educational needs of the people and to point the way toward their solution.

CHAPTER III

GENERAL VIEW OF EDUCATION IN MISSOURI

Some Trends in Education

A BRIEF general view of public elementary and secondary education in Missouri shows that many significant changes have taken place since the adoption of the Constitution of 1875. Some of these changes are shown in Table I.

Table I

Some Trends in Public Elementary and Secondary Education in Missouri

Item	Year Ending			
	1875	1900	1931	1943
Assessed valuation of taxable property.. . .	\$569,389,785	\$1,093,091,264	\$4,441,869,405	\$3,502,613,925
Value of school buildings and equipment	6,771,163	18,866,156	no data	188,170,947
Cost.	3,013,596 (Estimate) ¹	7,816,050	59,314,920	57,974,404
State contribution	470,120	990,246	4,266,648	19,264,021
Number of high schools.	3	324	976	789
Enrollment in high schools	1,346	20,000	130,962	159,549
		(Estimate)		
Average number of days schools were open	99	144	no data	160-180
Average number of days attended per child	66	no data	no data	no data
Number of teachers	9,651	16,201	24,909	25,225

The amount of money that the people of the State have invested in school buildings, equipment and sites since 1875 has increased from approximately seven million to 188 million dollars. During the same period the annual cost of educating the public elementary and secondary school children has increased from three million to approximately fifty-eight million dollars. At the same time the State has increased its annual financial participation in public elementary and secondary schools from four hundred seventy thousand to approximately nineteen million dollars. The same period witnessed the increase in number of high school students from thirteen hundred to approximately one hundred sixty thousand. In these and many other aspects education in Missouri has made phenomenal

progress, of which the citizens may well be proud. Many of these other aspects will readily come to the mind of the reader.

In a general view of education in Missouri, there are some aspects that attract attention and raise problems. Some of these aspects are presented in Table II.

Table II
Some Significant Changes in Education in Missouri

Item	Year Ending			
	1875	1900	1931	1943
Number of Districts	7,740	9,872	8,924	8,613
School Enumeration	720,186	986,665	948,220	908,235
Enrollment	394,780	719,817	660,306	667,859
A. D. A.	192,904	460,012	584,230	530,696
Number of Teachers	9,651	16,201	24,909	25,225
Teacher Load: (A. D. A. ÷ by number of teachers)	20	28	23	21

The reader's attention is directed to the fact that Missouri has a large number of school districts. The peak in number was reached in the period from 1900 to 1910. Then in the period from 1900 to 1931 less than one thousand districts were merged with other districts by various movements. However, from 1931, the year the 1931 School Law was passed, to 1943 only 311 were merged with other districts. This fact is very significant when one recalls that one of the major objectives of the proponents of the 1931 School Law was to enlarge the school service areas by joining together certain districts. However, there is no record in the State Department of Education showing that any enlarged school service areas were formed under this law.

It is worthy of note that even for the State as a whole, the enumeration and average daily attendance have decreased since 1931. As will be shown later, this decrease has been sharpest in the rural areas and has helped to bring to a focus certain problems in educating the children in these areas.

Another significant fact is that for the state as a whole the average teaching load (that is, the average daily attendance divided by the number of teachers) has decreased rather

sharply. It may be noted that an average of twenty-one pupils a teacher would not be considered too small according to the usual standards. However, the problem arises in connection with a large number of the rural schools, as will be discussed later.

Sources and Disbursements of State School Money

A summary of the major sources of the money distributed by the State Department of Education to the schools of the state is given in Table III.

Table III

Major Sources of State School Moneys from March 1, 1942 to February 28, 1943

Source	Amount
School Moneys—One-Third of General Revenue:	
Sales Tax.....	\$10,459,940.02
Income Tax.....	3,336,699.69
Liquor, beer, soft drinks, etc.....	2,262,743.71
State property tax.....	665,522.09
Corporation franchise.....	532,486.53
Inheritance tax.....	577,939.98
Foreign insurance.....	470,282.27
All other sources.....	318,777.77
Total.....	\$18,624,392.06
Other Sources:	
Free textbook fund.....	\$1,645,661.06
Interest on certificates of indebtedness and permanent school fund..	190,547.50
Federal funds:	
Vocational education.....	\$800,409.36
National defense.....	1,009,182.07
Rehabilitation.....	45,707.76
	1,655,299.19
Other general revenues.....	155,172.82
Total other sources.....	\$3,646,680.57
Grand total receipts.....	\$22,271,072.63

It will be noted that eighty-six per cent of one-third of the general revenue that goes to the schools is derived from the sales tax, the income tax and the liquor, beer, soft drinks, etc. taxes.

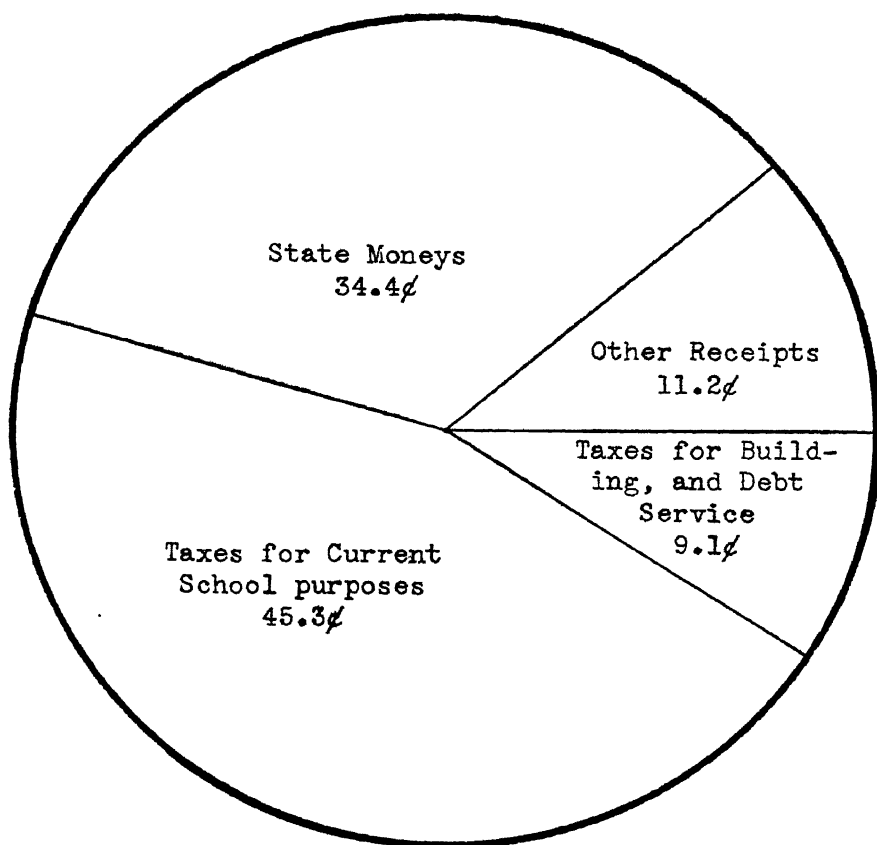
The various major items for which state school money is disbursed are shown in Table IV.

Table IV**Disbursements of State School Moneys from July 1, 1942 to June 30, 1943**

Item	Amount
State Apportionment Payments:	
Equalization quota, teacher and attendance quota, etc...	\$9,962,223 64
Tuition.....	2,236,020 00
Transportation ..	2,037,242.00
Building aid (abandonment)	42,750 00
Opportunity rooms.	16,090 00
Aid for orphans.	81,283 00
Aid for defectives	116,231.00
Additional payments...	2,645,729 00
Total payment...	\$17,137,568.64
Vocational Reimbursement Payments:	
Agriculture.	\$346,591 79
Home economics.	163,184.77
Trade and industry.	260,572.41
Distributive education	38,292.53
Teacher training.....	84,091.91
Total...	\$892,733.41
Other Payments to Schools:	
Free textbooks.....	\$1,645,661.06
High school teacher training aid	10,350.00
Cities teacher training aid.....	91,114 77
Building aid (Central High School)...	18,000.00
Total...	\$1,765,125 83
Other Payments:	
Vocational rehabilitation	\$91,765.81
Vocational national defense.....	1,009,182.07
Curriculum research and construction.....	24,383.21
Administrative and supervisory costs.....	114,345.64
Other institutions and administrative agencies	354,370.67
Total...	\$1,594,047.40
Total disbursements	\$21,389,475.28
Other encumbrances.	881,597.35
Grand total disbursements	\$22,271,072.63

It will be noted that the major portion of the state school money is spent for the equalization quota, the teacher and attendance quota and certain other items. However, approximately four and a quarter million dollars are spent on tuition and transportation of school children. Incidentally, it may be remarked that these two latter items were provided by the 1931 School Law to promote the high school education of rural boys and girls.

SOURCES OF THE SCHOOL DOLLAR—1943

**Amounts of Money Collected for Public Elementary
and Secondary Education**

For purposes of comparison of the various amounts of school money collected by the local public elementary and secondary schools, the following data are included in Table V and Graph 1.

Table V**State Summary of Receipts of School Districts by Source**

Item	Amount
Balance June 30, 1942.	\$13,981,410 00
Receipts:	
State funds	19,864,430.00
County and township funds.	603,539 00
Railroad and other utility taxes	2,152,834.00
Taxes for school purposes..	28,156,560 00
Taxes for sinking purposes.	6,767,947.00
Sale of bonds or property.	217,436.00
All other receipts	2,961,847 00
Total receipts.....	\$60,724,593.00
Total balance and receipts..	\$74,706,003.00

Bonded Indebtedness of Schools

From time to time the question of bonded indebtedness of the schools in Missouri has arisen. Some of the school districts have reached or practically reached their constitutional limit in bonded indebtedness and are struggling under a heavy tax load to meet this obligation. On the other hand, a great many districts are debt free or practically so. The situation for the state as a whole is shown in Table VI.

Table VI**Assessed Valuation, School Indebtedness and School Enrollment in Missouri in 1942-1943**

Item	Amount
Assessed valuation	\$3,502,613,925
Indebtedness.....	39,031,713
Enrollment.....	667,801
Assessed valuation per child enrolled	5,244
Indebtedness per child enrolled.....	58
Per cent indebtedness is of assessed valuation..	1.11
Remaining bonding capacity ¹	136,098,983

¹The maximum bonding capacity based on five per cent of the assessed valuation minus the bonded indebtedness.

It may be readily seen that so far as the State as a whole is concerned, the possible bonding capacity is far from being filled.

Rank Among the Forty-eight States of Missouri in Certain Items

While remarkable progress has been made in education in Missouri, many people are interested in the relative position that Missouri occupies among the states of the Union on certain items related to education. Also, these relative positions are often very significant in that they may help point the way to further progress. However, it should be said that only some of the possible items on which rankings may be made are shown on the following pages for what they are worth. However, it should be stated that these rankings are taken from what are usually considered to be reliable sources.

Rank of Missouri Among the Forty-eight States in Certain Items

Item	Rank among the forty- eight states
Average ability to support schools (this is an average of ten items showing the financial status of Missouri as shown in the statistical abstract of the United States, 1942, U. S. Dept. of Commerce).....	10
Per cent of income expended for public schools (Research Bulletin, National Education Association, December, 1942)....	33
Per cent of school tax revenue from the state.....	23
School cost per capita of population in 1941-1942.....	36
Total cost per pupil in average daily attendance in 1941-1942..	29
Salaries of teachers in 1941-1942.....	25
Number of days attended by each pupil in 1941-1942.....	34
Number of one-room school buildings in 1941-1942 (the greater the number of buildings, the greater the rank number. Only two states have a greater number of buildings).....	46

CHAPTER IV

SOME ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING RURAL EDUCATION AND RURAL WELFARE

RURAL education is directly related to the welfare of all rural people. The welfare of the people cannot be promoted without a proper development of education. Moreover, both are determined by economic conditions. In a study of rural education it is, therefore, of great importance to consider those economic conditions and factors which, in the long run, determine the well being of people on the land.

In the United States where the major interest is now industrial, agriculture faces many economic problems. For instance, many farms are commercialized and on such farms where additional help is needed in carrying on agricultural activities farmers are not finding it easy to compete with industry for the labor supply. This is illustrated in Table VII

Table VII

Per Capita Net Annual Income of Persons on Farms and Not on Farms in the United States¹

Year	PER CAPITA NET INCOME						
	Persons on Farms ²				Persons not on Farms ²		
	Excluding Government Payments			Including Government Payments	Source of Income		Total
	From Agri.	Other	Total		Non-Agri.	Agri.	
1910-14			\$134	\$488
1935-39	\$159	\$68	227	241	\$592	\$11	603
1940	157	79	236	258	688	11	699
1941	234	98	327	345	810	18	823
1942	365	114	479	500	990	17	1,007
1943	470	137	607	628	1,189	19	1,208

¹Adapted from "Net Farm Income and Parity Report, 1943," Bureau of Agricultural Economics, United States Department of Agriculture.

²Includes as income products used from farm and rent of home. Does not include non-farm income.

³Based on net national income less net agricultural income.

which shows the comparative income per worker of agricultural and non-agricultural workers. The income to agricultural workers has in the main been from one-third to one-half that received by non-agricultural workers. When farmers undertake to overcome this handicap in bidding for hired labor, they have great difficulty in doing so.

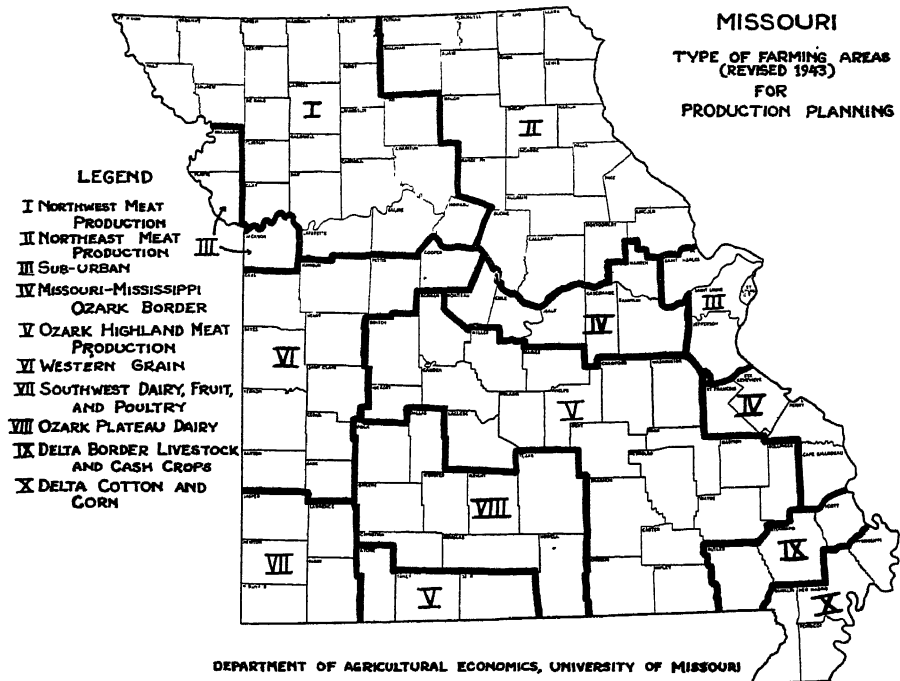
Farmers have had similar difficulty in securing proper credit. This has been due to the uncertainties of the seasons, the lack of liquidity of their enterprises, the uncertain quality of management, which is often applied to farming enterprises, and to a number of other natural difficulties.

In competition for both capital and labor agriculture must emphasize advantages not available to industry. Among these advantages are self-direction of effort, a more highly unified family life and considerable certainty that necessary food and shelter will be available. The changing seasons, a greater amount of time spent outdoors, inspiration derived from seasons of growth, maturity and harvest, have great significance to farm people. These compensate more or less for monetary limitations experienced by rural families in competing with industry. Those who do not place a high value on these less tangible rewards are not likely to remain long in agriculture. The transfer of such individuals into other economic groups should be expedited by adapting their education and training more nearly to the requirements of the industrial world into which this portion of the rural population will move.

Farm Incomes and Type of Farming Areas

To understand more fully the limitations under which rural communities work, it seems desirable to review briefly those physical resources available to farm people. For this purpose the type of farming area classification, which has been developed and revised from time to time will be used. The type of farming areas for Missouri are shown in Map 1. These areas have been delimited very largely by two or three major forces. Perhaps the most important of these is the soil resources. Next is the nearness to a market center which influences farm prices and the type of farming followed. The economic well-being of farmers in these areas differ widely as does their ability to support rural institutions such as schools and churches. A

MAP 1



summary of the outstanding characteristics of these various areas is given in the following paragraphs.

Area I, for instance, is perhaps the most productive diversified farming area in the State. Corn, beef, hogs, dairy products, and poultry are found among the list of major sources of farm income. The lands are fully utilized and the people generally enjoy comparatively high incomes.

In Area II, the level of productivity of the soil is not quite as high, and as a result, a greater use of pasture, hay crops, and small grain is made. With this exception, the system of farming is fairly similar to that of Area I. There is not quite as much fattening of hogs and beef cattle and perhaps more emphasis on dairying.

Area III has a productivity level comparable to Area I from the standpoint of soil resources. It is listed as a separate area chiefly because of the influence of the large cities within this area.

Area IV is a hilly region of medium productivity which includes large acreages of woodland and meadow. The bottom lands in this area are highly productive. Farms are generally

well maintained, people are frugal and make careful use of rather limited incomes.

Area V is the Ozark Highland meat production area and represents a most extensive farming system. The soils are shallow and stony, less than half the land is cleared. From the standpoint of deriving income from the physical resources which nature has provided, this area presents many problems.

Area VI is prairie land of medium productivity. Cash grains comprise a more important source of income here than in any other considerable area of the State. Livestock production and some important dairy activities are found in this area. Corn, wheat, and soybeans are all produced here as cash crops. In many respects, considerable acreages of this area are not unlike those of the wheat and grazing areas in our neighboring state to the west.

Area VII emphasizes the production of dairy products, fruit, and poultry. A small percentage of the land is arable. Much of it is stony but some of the stony land is rather productive. Some of the highest quality of management found anywhere in the State will be found in this area.

Area VIII contains a considerable acreage which is very similar to that in Area V but it has developed a more intensive dairy and poultry industry. Less than fifty per cent of the land area is adapted to cultivation, but a high level of excellence is achieved on much of this land.

Area IX includes the beginning of the delta country. While it produces some cotton and much corn as cash crops, yet more emphasis is given to livestock than in the more highly developed cotton counties to the south.

Area X is the most intensive cotton growing section. The farming system is built around cotton and farm incomes are comparatively high. The land is generally highly productive, although there are some areas of low productivity.

A comparison of the incomes in the ten areas is shown in Table VIII.

Table VIII**Gross Farm Income in Missouri According to the United States Census, 1940**

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Value of Products Sold, Traded or Used per Farm		
		1929	1939	1943
I.	2	\$2,291	\$1,484	\$3,205
II.	4	1,675	1,081	2,334
III.	3	1,954	1,269	2,740
IV.	7	1,342	907	1,958
V.	10	1,059	590	1,275
VI.	5	1,656	1,064	2,299
VII.	9	1,241	654	1,413
VIII.	8	1,170	662	1,430
IX.	6	1,322	1,001	2,161
X.	1	1,642	1,911	4,127
Average	\$1,604	\$1,048	\$2,264

Farm Facilities in Missouri

Except where specialized cash crop production is highly developed, farm improvements and farming activities bear a close relationship to the quality of physical resources with which farm people must work. While there are individual exceptions in practically every area, yet in general the quality of homes, service buildings, fences, and other farm improvements bear a close relation to the productivity of the land on which those improvements stand. Table IX shows by type of farming areas the value of land and buildings per acre according to the 1939 census and the estimated sales value of land and buildings per acre in 1944, together with the property tax levied against the lands of these areas. The comparatively high values indicated for Southeast Missouri, Areas IX and X, are not due to the improvements on the land but to the high income possibilities of the cotton crop based on present prices. The high value in Area III is partly due to the high level of productivity of the land but also to the proximity of these areas to our large cities and the urban influence on the character of improvements on these farms.

Table IX

Value of Farm Real Estate in Missouri, Tax Rate, and Tax Per Acre by Type of Farming Areas

(From United States Census)

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Value of Land and Buildings per Acre, 1939, U. S. Census	Estimated Sale Value of Land and Buildings per Acre, 1944	Tax Rate per \$100 Assessed Valuation, 1942 (cents)	Tax per Acre, 1942 (cents)
I	2	\$43.73	\$60	39.7	17.4
II	4	27.58	40	39.3	10.8
III	3	87.81	85	51.3	45.0
IV	7	29.16	42	35.4	10.3
V	10	15.28	20	45.5	7.0
VI	5	27.61	36	34.0	9.4
VII	9	28.60	38	48.0	13.7
VIII	8	20.67	35	40.6	8.4
IX	6	32.39	55	69.6	22.5
X	1	58.61	101	74.5	43.7
State		\$31.87	\$42	48.0	15.3

A comparison of the equipment with which farm operators work should be significant in properly judging incomes. Table X presents the information available on farm machinery and equipment as given in the Report of the 1940 United States Census. It is perfectly obvious that a great majority of Mis-

Table X

Value per Farm of Farm Implements and Machinery in Missouri by Type of Farming Areas

(From United States 1940 Census)

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Value Per Farm
I	2	\$558.90
II	4	423.00
III	3	540.30
IV	7	445.50
V	10	212.10
VI	5	428.40
VII	9	298.70
VIII	8	226.90
IX	6	357.00
X	1	567.50
State Average		\$405.50

souri farms are under-equipped with modern machinery. Even when allowance is made for normal depreciation there is still an obvious lack of machinery on the average farm to say nothing of those which have less than the average. It is equally clear that in most of the type of farming areas in the State there is inadequate equipment of practically all kinds.

Transportation facilities are dependent more on the nature of the product to be marketed than on the productivity of the land. All-weather roads and truck lines will be more commonly found in the medium grade lands than in the best land areas. In the best land areas, farm crops are marketed through cattle and hogs or as a cash crop, and largely at seasonal periods during the year. None of these products demand a high degree of day-to-day regularity in the marketing program. Consequently, there has been less emphasis on the establishment of all-weather roads in these most productive land areas. Also, in the areas of medium lands and systems of farming built around dairy and poultry products, materials for constructing and maintaining all-weather roads have been more easily accessible. Consequently, these areas have more available all-weather road facilities.

Table XI

Distribution of Farms in Missouri Type of Farming Areas by Value of Production
(Used or Sold) Expressed in Per Cents, (1939)

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Less than \$250	\$250-399	\$400-599	\$600-999	\$1000-1499	\$1500 or more
I	2	10.6	8.7	12.0	21.6	18.1	29.0
II	4	17.3	12.1	15.8	22.5	14.7	18.1
III	3	24.7	12.6	11.8	15.9	12.5	22.5
IV	7	20.3	12.9	15.3	22.4	14.6	14.5
V	10	34.2	19.0	17.1	16.7	6.9	6.2
VI	5	18.6	12.2	15.3	21.5	14.4	18.0
VII	9	32.1	16.8	16.0	17.8	9.2	8.1
VIII	8	27.4	16.8	17.9	20.7	9.7	7.5
IX	6	18.5	14.2	15.6	20.8	13.5	17.4
X	1	3.4	5.5	9.5	21.4	21.4	38.8
State Average	20.9	13.2	14.8	20.3	13.3	17.5

Table reads: In Area I 10.6 per cent of the farms produced in used and sold materials less than \$250 a year; etc.

Rural Standards of Living

Standards of living in any community are limited by the incomes enjoyed by the families of that community. Incomes received by Missouri farm families in 1939 are shown in Table XI, above.

For the state as a whole, practically half of Missouri farm families received incomes of less than \$600 in products used and sold. Less than one-third of them realized \$1,000.00 or more and one-fifth of them less than \$250. By no stretch of the imagination can one visualize an acceptable living standard for a farm family having less than \$250 worth of products for use and sale in a year.

This situation cannot be reconciled with present public policies which advocate minimum wages of 40c to 60c an hour. This \$250 worth of products consumed and sold must cover farm operating costs and provide whatever living the farm family receives. It is true that these data are for 1939, which was slightly below what might be regarded as a normal price and production period, but even if these data were corrected for price level, the value of production per farm would not be raised by more than fifteen or twenty per cent. A twenty per cent correction would be liberal. This would still mean that one-fifth of our families have not more than \$300 worth of production on which to depend for their level of living. At the present time, under the stimulations of wartime prices, these incomes are more than double the 1939 level, but it is unlikely that present highly favorable price circumstances will be maintained for more than the war period and a few years thereafter.

In 1940, one-fourth of the owner occupied rural farm dwelling units were valued at less than \$500 and over fifty per cent were valued at less than \$1,000. Of the farm tenant houses, over one-third had a rental value of less than \$5 a month and over seventy-two per cent had a rental value of \$9 or less.

Census data for 1940 for the northern part of the United States, which included Missouri, shows that almost one-third of the farm homes are over fifty years old, while only about fifteen per cent of urban homes are of that age.

The 1940 census data on Missouri housing indicates a great need for modernization and repair of rural homes. Thus more

than one-third of the farm homes were found to be in need of major repairs. Electricity was the most common modern convenience. In 1940 this was found in 15.9 per cent of the farm homes. However, the rapid growth of rural electrification during 1940, 1941, and 1942, increased to twenty-six per cent the farm homes served by power lines by the end of 1942. With reference to water in the house, eleven per cent had a hand pump, usually a pitcher pump in the kitchen, 6.5 per cent had running water, 4.8 per cent had a bathtub or shower, and 4.7 per cent had an inside toilet. Only about one-half of the homes with electricity had mechanical refrigeration, while ice refrigeration was available in only 18.7 per cent of the farm homes.

It is evident from the data given that Missouri farm people have thus far been unable to provide themselves with many of the facilities which the average city person considers necessary. It is doubtless true that one of the reasons for the failure of country people to have such facilities is the fact that they have not been accustomed to them previously and are, therefore, not greatly interested in providing them. However, the principal reasons are that many of these facilities are difficult to obtain in the country and that most of them cost more money than most farmers have thus far been able to afford. The great majority of farmers would have better homes with most of the modern conveniences if it were possible for them to do so.

Proper educational opportunities and proper contacts with the agencies making for the advancement of agriculture and the modernization of farm homes, barns and equipment, would interest most farmers in these improvements. To what extent they will be able to improve their farm incomes and avail themselves of the opportunities to make use of such facilities, only the future will tell. It is of course true that there are many people of a low economic level in cities, because they lack the ability or the energy to compete with others of somewhat higher natural endowments, and the same is true among people in the country. There are such individuals in every population group, but farming in itself is a business. Its successful prosecution for the majority of such individuals demands more education than is required of the routine operators in factories and in most establishments in the cities. There is little wonder, therefore, that such large numbers of farmers are unable to make

a satisfactory living under the conditions confronting them. Great advances in rural education are essential to a more widespread state of well being among farm people.

Technological Developments

Within the past twenty years developments of new techniques in farming have been outstanding features of rural living. Such technological improvements as hybrid corn, better adaptation of farm machinery to the requirements and means of farm operators, expansion of the use of electricity and power in farming, the dissemination of market information by radio, including price movements, the extension of milk and produce routes, increased dependence on trucks and truck routes for marketing farm produce and returning supplies to the farm, are a few of the technological improvements which have made great changes in the manner in which agriculture is conducted and in the demands on the operator and his family.

In some regards, the pressures exerted by the war situation have expedited this development of improved techniques and in others retarded it. Because of the scarcity of farm help, there has been a speed-up in the adoption of labor-saving conveniences wherever these conveniences could be procured. Public policy of federal officials has been to expedite this movement. On the other hand, emphasis has also been placed on greater self-sufficiency in the farm home, thus causing farm families to give more attention to home practices which promote self-sufficiency. Thus there has been considerable tendency for farm families to assume a greater dependency on themselves for needed food supplies. Farmers and their families have been forced to familiarize themselves with highly technological procedures and practices. In actual affect, many farm families are now applying, as a matter of course, technological processes as far in advance of those used twenty years ago as second-year college work is beyond that of the eighth grade. Children of rural school age on the average farm are today applying techniques about which their fathers knew little or nothing. This cannot fail to have its impact on the school program in which these children participate.

Roads and Communications

Not the least of the changes which are occurring in rural Missouri are those associated with improvement of the communication system, including the highway system. In 1940, there were fifty-four per cent of our farms still on dirt roads, while only forty-six per cent were on what could be called all-weather roads, as shown in Table XII. Some of the dirt roads were naturally all-

Table XII

Distribution of Missouri Farms According to Type of Road on Which Located in 1940

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Total Farms Reported	Per Cent of Farms Reported on				
			Hard Surfaced Road	Gravel, Shell, Shale, etc.	Im-proved Dirt	Unim-proved Dirt	Total Dirt
I	2	48,006	8	36	20	36	56
II	4	40,143	6	41	18	34	52
III	3	11,658	41	33	20	7	26
IV	7	17,984	10	61	15	14	29
V	10	38,419	7	27	25	42	67
VI	5	26,606	7	40	21	32	53
VII	9	14,763	9	41	25	24	50
VIII	8	25,400	8	28	31	34	64
IX	6	8,484	7	38	24	32	55
X	1	11,376	8	29	30	33	63

weather roads except for small stretches which destroyed any advantage the all-weather character may have had in the remaining portion. As might be expected, Area III is most completely served by good roads. Twenty-six per cent of the roads in this area are dirt roads and only 6.6 per cent of these are unimproved dirt roads. Approximately seventy-four per cent of the farms in this area are on all-weather roads. From fifty to sixty-seven per cent of the farms are on dirt roads in the entire area north of the river. Some of our most productive counties have only about one-third of their farms on all-weather roads. This is of particular importance in considering the rural school problem. No means have yet been discovered for getting country children to school comparable to those enjoyed by urban children except to transport them in school busses and school busses cannot travel continuously on unimproved dirt roads.

Other community facilities forming an essential factor of rural living include the telephone and the radio. Less than forty per cent of Missouri farms had telephone facilities in 1940. There has been a great decline in the use of telephones in the country in the last twenty years. This is partly due to the convenience of the radio in providing news, but more largely to the fact that the depression years, between 1920 and 1940, caused the discontinuance of telephone service in many farm homes. There has, also, been considerable dissatisfaction in many communities in attempting to secure proper telephone service.

Eighty per cent of Missouri farm homes had radios in 1940. The radio serves to provide news and market information useful to farmers in planning production programs and marketing the resulting products. As a means of education and of broadening the horizon of rural thinking it is having a powerful influence.

Rural Electrification

Attention has already been called to the fact that twenty-six per cent of Missouri farms had electricity and power at the end of 1942. This has been expanding some since and plans are already perfected for considerable expansion as soon as materials and labor can be procured. Developments to date have demonstrated that rural Missouri has full appreciation of the great contribution to real living made by rural electrification programs. The rural education program can make further contributions in this direction by placing emphasis on many unappreciated possibilities in this field. If satisfactory economic levels can be maintained, the developments from rural electrification are destined to exert a tremendous influence on rural people and rural living.

Farm Tenancy as Related to Rural Welfare and Rural Education

It is generally recognized that the proportion of farms in a community which are operated by men who do not own them has a direct bearing on the educational program of the people. Tenants are frequently short-time residents of a community and therefore naturally play a small part in developing and sustaining rural schools. Their children have less opportunity to become deeply interested in the work they are doing in a

particular school district, the friendships they form are short lived and they regard their participation in school affairs as temporary. Consequently, they cannot develop the deep and sustained interest which they would develop if they had some assurance that they were to continue in a particular school system and social group throughout the school lives of the children. In addition to this, the owners of the farms frequently evince little interest in supporting an educational program. They frequently feel that the less they pay for schools the better, and this does not contribute toward a highly effective educational program.

The percentage of farms occupied by tenants varies greatly in Missouri. As an average, about three farms out of eight are operated by tenants; however, in the cotton section almost eight families out of ten in the rural area are tenant families as shown in Table XIII and Map 2.

Table XIII

Per Cent of Farms Operated by Tenants in Missouri by Type of Farming Areas
(From 1940 United States Census)

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Per Cent of Farms Operated by Tenants
I	2	41.9
II	4	34.1
III	3	35.0
IV	7	23.8
V	10	26.6
VI	5	41.0
VII	9	33.9
VIII	8	24.3
IX	6	47.0
X	1	73.1
State Average		35.6

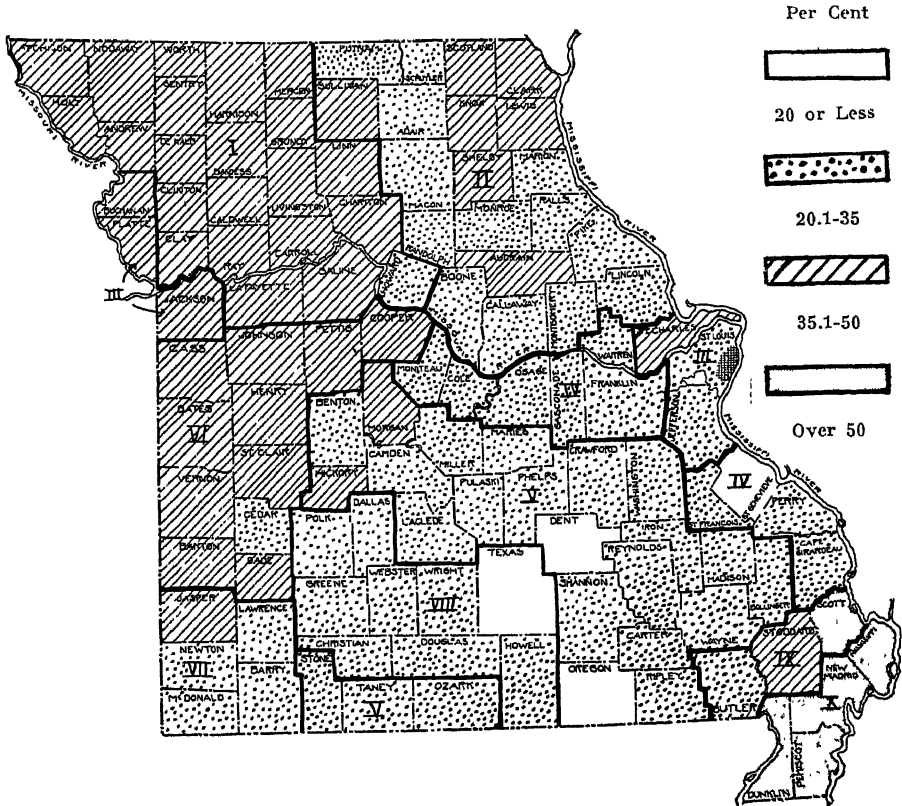
In Mississippi County eighty-one per cent of all farms are occupied by tenants. Another heavy tenant area is found in the large corn producing section in Northwest Missouri. In Holt County more than forty per cent of the farms are occupied by tenants while in Atchison County the figure is forty-six per cent. At the other extreme is the Ozark Highland, where the proportion of tenancy is low. For instance, in

Reynolds County, one farm in four is a tenant farm. In Ozark and Oregon Counties one farm in five is a tenant operated farm. However, taking the State as a whole the proportion of tenant occupied farms has been increasing. Fifty years ago twenty-two per cent of the farms in the state were tenant operated, while in 1940 the amount of tenancy had increased to thirty-five per cent.

Many tenants remain on a given farm less than three years and a considerable portion of them remain only one year. Thus constant shifts in the character of the population of a community are occurring. A teacher in charge of a rural school can be reasonably certain that a goodly number of the children whom she has come to know well will not be back with her the following year. This can have no other effect than a detrimental one on the educational progress of the children and on the development of a comprehensive and sustained school program.

MAP 2

Per Cent of Farms Operated by Tenants in Missouri (1940 United States Census).



Problems in Rural School Financing

A matter causing much controversy, in the field of rural education, is that of the methods of financing. Schools are expensive. Many rural districts are incapable of providing a fair share of the funds necessary to the proper development of schools. The enrollment is so low in sixty to seventy per cent of the one-room rural schools of Missouri that their economic management is very difficult. Similarly, there are many high schools having such small enrollments that their continuance is certainly uneconomical to say the least. It is, therefore, of importance that a brief analysis be made of the whole situation regarding rural school financing and the factors affecting it.

The analysis should be based on the following fundamental concepts:

- (a) Within certain limits a child anywhere in the United States regardless of its economic status is entitled to just as good an educational opportunity as a child anywhere else in the country.
- (b) This privilege is not now available to many boys and girls among whom rural boys and girls make up a large majority.
- (c) The cost of providing an adequate educational program should rest on all those who will ultimately benefit from it.
- (d) Rural communities send approximately one-half their children to urban areas to spend their productive lives, thus maintaining or increasing populations in urban areas which are not maintaining themselves.
- (e) There seems to be an inverse ratio between the physical productivity of rural communities and the proportion of the children produced. Thus the rural areas having the largest numbers of children are least able to support adequate educational programs.
- (f) The rural educational program to which rural children have been exposed is not nearly as effective as it should be in equipping them for more productive adult lives, and it does not compare with the educational program offered most urban children.

Keeping in mind these assumptions based on factual information and observation, it is important that an analysis be made of the economic problems of financing rural education and the important factors upon which financing must be based.

Land Values

Under our present plan of providing for an educational program for rural Missouri, the property tax is an important and more particularly the assessed value, has a highly significant part to play in the matter of providing funds for both the fixed investments in the school system and for current operation. Evidence of great variation in productivity of the various types of farming areas in the state has already been presented. It seems quite logical, therefore, that the immediate evidence of this variation be presented. This evidence was given in Table IX, which shows the value of land and buildings per acre by type of farming area for 1939, and the estimated sale value in 1944.

Land values in the state in 1939, which was the depression period for farm real estate, varied from an average of approximately \$88 per acre in Type of Farming Area III, which includes counties adjacent to the large urban centers, to \$15 per acre in Area V, comprising some of the less productive lands in the Ozark Highlands. In Areas I and X, which include some of the most highly productive lands, values were from three to four times as much per acre as in Area V. By 1944, when farm real estate values were not depressed but in some instances were definitely inflated, average values per acre based on the best estimates obtainable, indicate the response which real estate values make to improvement in prices of the products of the farm. In Area V, there has been an increase of approximately one-third from 1939 to 1944. In Area X, real estate values have approximately doubled.

Fortunately for the stability of financing a program of a public enterprise, such as education, assessed values are not allowed to fluctuate as widely as do market values. Thus assessed values for 1939 and 1944 would remain about the same.

Property Values and Tax Rates in Missouri by Type of Farming Areas

It has already been demonstrated that rural family incomes vary widely in different parts of Missouri and that they also differ greatly from urban incomes. These data were presented as indicating a community's ability to pay for education. However, the contributions people actually make to education in direct taxation has no necessary relation to incomes because school taxes are based on the assessed valuation of real and personal property rather than on incomes. In properly appraising this aspect of the rural education problem, it should be kept in mind that assessed and market value of property may in individual cases differ widely, yet over broad areas they bear a fairly constant relationship.

Table XIV shows for Missouri, by type of farming areas, first, the assessed valuation of taxable property in rural school districts per child enumerated and per child actually enrolled. It also shows the current market value of farm land and buildings per child enumerated and child enrolled, using the 1939 United States Census data for land values and the enumeration and enrollment data from the Ninety-third Report of Missouri Public Schools, 1942.

Table XIV

Assessed Property Values per Child Enumerated and Enrolled in Rural School Districts With Comparisons

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Assessed Property Value		Market Value of Farm Land and Buildings ¹	
		Per Child Enumerated	Per Child Enrolled	Per Child Enumerated	Per Child Enrolled
I	2	\$6,513	\$11,052	\$8,954	\$15,193
II	4	4,886	8,241	5,566	9,388
III	3	5,300	9,159	5,877	10,155
IV	7	3,006	5,546	3,894	7,184
V	10	1,607	2,229	1,871	2,594
VI	5	5,006	7,610	5,834	8,870
VII	9	1,698	3,373	2,314	4,596
VIII	8	1,787	2,445	2,533	3,467
IX	6	1,021	1,301	2,351	2,996
X	1	1,279	1,524	4,268	5,085
State Average		\$3,410	\$5,266	\$4,415	\$6,863

¹From 1939 United States Census data. Property values and the Missouri Report of Public Schools, 1942 for enumeration and enrollment.

There are some highly significant figures in this table. Taking into consideration the property values per child enrolled, it will be found that Area I had assessed property values of \$11,052 per child enrolled, while Areas IX and X had only about one-seventh of that amount. In other words, if the local revenue to help provide facilities and a school program for rural children must come from a local general property tax, there would be seven times as much provided in Area I as in Areas IX and X provided the local levies were the same. There would be five times as much in Area I as in Areas V and VIII, and twice as much as in Areas IV and VII.

The data given indicate one of the greatest single problems in connection with the equalization of school opportunity in rural areas and as between rural and urban areas. Either the property tax for school purposes in the areas of low property values must be greatly increased, which is rarely feasible, or the contribution to the school system from outside sources must be increased if the present pattern for school service areas remains. However, there are other alternatives which seem to make neither of the foregoing necessary and they will be presented later.

The evidence presented in Table XV shows a part of what has happened. In Area I the tax rate has been about forty cents

Table XV

Tax Levy Per \$100 Valuation and Value Per Acre of Land and Buildings—Rural Schools Only

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Tax Rate per \$100 Assessed Valuation, 1942 (cents)	Value of Land and Buildings per Acre, 1939 U. S. Census (Assessed)	Estimated Sale Value of Land and per Acre 1944	Tax per Acre, 1942 (cents)
I	2	39.7	\$43.74	\$60	17.4
II	4	39.3	27.58	40	10.8
III	3	51.3	87.81	85	45.0
IV	7	35.4	29.16	42	10.3
V	10	45.5	15.28	20	7.0
VI	5	34.0	27.61	36	9.4
VII	9	48.0	28.60	38	13.7
VIII	8	40.6	20.67	35	8.4
IX	6	69.6	32.39	55	22.5
X	1	74.5	58.61	101	48.7
State Average		48	\$31.87	\$42	15.3

per \$100 assessed valuation. In Areas IX and X the rate has been seventy to seventy-five cents. In spite of a rate nearly twice as high, when based on the tax rate per acre in 1942, these areas have difficulty in financing the local part of a school program. Another pertinent comparison, also presented in Table XV is that of the probable sale value of land and buildings per acre in 1944 and the tax paid per acre in 1942. Area I, with farm real estate worth about \$60 per acre on the average, paid thirty per cent less tax per acre than Area IX, with real estate values only eight per cent less. It is obvious that some areas in the state on the basis of actual property values are making less effort to support an adequate educational program than are others which are paying considerably more than the state average. It should not be forgotten also that this sale value of farm real estate is only a part of the wealth which is assessed for tax purposes. Thus Area I, having a real estate value of \$60 per acre, has probably \$15 or \$20 more in personal property, which makes the tax burden per acre still less. An Ozark highland area will have less personal property per acre to lighten the tax burden for school purposes.

While time and space do not permit presentation of the evidence, yet it has been demonstrated that a tax burden of seven cents per acre in Area V or thirteen cents per acre in Area VII constitutes a burden of much greater proportion of the net income per acre than does a burden of seventeen cents in Area I or eleven cents in Area II. Farms in Area I are considerably larger than those in the Ozark highlands. Consequently, the family has net returns from more acres on which to depend for a living and tax payments.

Rural School Enrollments by Type of Farming Areas

Another factor which influences the amount of support the rural school requires in different type of farming areas is the number of children within the school district. The number of children per school district is shown in Table XVI. Area I, which includes our most productive soil, has an average of about fourteen children enrolled per school district. Time did not permit of calculating the data for each county, consequently counties which are considered representative were used for comparison. For instance, in Area I the average en-

Table XVI

Rural School Enrollment and Attendance in Missouri by Type of Farming Areas¹

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Number Counties in Sample	Average Enrollment Per School	Average Attendance	Perfect Attendance
I	2	4	14	11	81
II	4	4	15	13	82
III	3	2	40	32	79
IV	7	2	24	19	81
V	10	4	26	19	74
VI	5	3	17	14	79
VII	9	1	40	30	74
VIII	8	2	31	22	71
IX	6	1	53	36	67
X	1	1	81	44	54

¹Using sample counties in each type of farming area. Data from Missouri Report of Public Schools—1943.

rollment and attendance are based on the situation in Atchison, Gentry, Caldwell and Saline counties. Other type of farming areas were sampled in the same manner. In this highly productive type of farming area the number of children per school district is less than in any other area in the state. In Area V, which includes probably the lowest average productivity of any area, the number of children per school district was between twenty-five and twenty-six. Thus, it appears that, in general, judging by the number of children in the school district, the revenue needs will be highest in the districts of lower productivity. Exceptions must be made for Area III surrounding the larger cities where the rural population is dense, and in the cotton Areas IX and X where the rural population is made up largely of tenant farmers and colored laborers.

The attendance seems to be better in the areas of more productive soils, although the lowest rate of attendance is in the heavy cotton Area X, a region of rather good soils, where the number of children is highest and where cotton farming requires the assistance of children in farming operations.

A Comparison of Two Widely Different Counties

In an effort to provide an illustration of the discrepancies there may be in the rural school situation as we go from those communities which have considerable economic possibilities

and those which have less, a simple comparison is made between two counties, one of them a northern Missouri county—among the best from the standpoint of agricultural productivity, and the other a southern Missouri county—definitely one of the better counties in the Ozark highlands.

The accompanying material in Table XVII gives some highly pertinent data for these counties. Two sources of information have been used, one is the Federal Census and the other the material presented in the Ninety-fourth Report of Missouri Public Schools—1943.

Table XVII**Comparative Resources to Support Rural Schools in Two Missouri Counties¹**

Item	A Good North Missouri County	A Good South Missouri County
Number of farms	1,513	3,251
Acres of land in farms	320,772	384,800
Acres per farm	212	118 4
Total value of land and buildings	\$22,637,729	\$5,118,363
Value per farm	14,962	1,574
Gross farm income per farm	3,339	478
Number of rural districts	61	103
Number of rural schools	54	94
Number of rural schools approved	34	25
Number of pupils enrolled	981	2,632
Average daily attendance	645.3	1,938 3
Value of School Property:		
Real estate	\$180,000	\$138,040
Equipment	52,000	63,310
Value of taxable property, rural districts	\$14,064,292	\$4,956,769
Tax levy, rate per \$10041	46
Total taxes collected	\$52,486	\$28,248
Debt	920	2,735
PER SCHOOL:		
Average number of farms	24	33
Average value of land and buildings in district (cen- sus data)	\$419,217	\$54,450
Average square miles per district	8.25	6
Value of taxable property	\$260,450	\$52,731
Value of School Property:		
Real estate	3,333	1,467
Equipment	963	673
Pupils enrolled	18 16	28
Average daily attendance	12	20 6
PER PUPIL ENROLLED.		
Value of real estate in district (census)	\$23,100	\$1,940
Value of taxable property	14,300	1,882
Value of school real estate	182	52
Value of equipment	53	24

¹Data taken from 1940 United States Census and from Ninety-fourth Missouri Report of Public Schools—1943

First, it will be noted that, whereas the number of acres of land in farms is only a little greater in the south Missouri county than in the one in north Missouri, the number of farms is more than double. Thus, in the north Missouri county, with land which is much more productive per acre, the acres per farm family are practically double that in the south Missouri county.

The total value of land and buildings in the north Missouri county is four times that of all farm lands and buildings in the south Missouri county. The value per farm is, therefore, about ten times as much in the north Missouri county; and the gross farm income is more than six times as much.

There are fifty-four rural schools in the northern county and ninety-four in the southern county. The number of pupils enrolled in the southern county is considerably more than double that in the northern area. The total value of school property is nearly the same in the two counties in spite of the fact that there is nearly double the number of schools in the southern county.

One of the most striking comparisons in the entire list is that the assessed value of taxable property for school purposes in the north Missouri county is slightly less than two-thirds the market value of land and buildings as reported in the 1940 United States Census, while in the south Missouri county these values are practically the same.

While the data are not presented here, it is certainly true that there is a larger volume of personal property in the rural area of the northern county than in that of the southern county. It, therefore, is evident that the assessed valuation of property for school purposes is much nearer the estimated market value of that property in the southern county than it is in the northern county. The assessor's figures indicate that there is almost three dollars worth of property available for assessment in the northern county to every one dollar of property in the southern. The local assessment rate per \$100 is a little higher in the southern county; and considering the almost full value of assessment there, the tax load is much higher than the difference in rate would indicate. The result is that with only about one-third of the assessed value of property for school purposes in the southern county, the amount of money actually collected locally for school purposes in the southern county was more

than fifty per cent of that in the northern county. This was obviously an effort on the part of the southern county to meet its school obligation.

Reducing some of these figures to a per school basis, the following comparisons are derived. There was nearly a half million dollars worth of real property in the average school district in the northern county, according to the 1940 United States Census. In the southern county there was just a little more than one-eighth as much. The average school district in the south was actually smaller than in the north. Each comprised six square miles per district in the southern county and 8.25 square miles in the northern. The value of taxable property in the average school district in the southern county was a little less than \$53,000, while in the northern county it was \$260,000.

For the school plant itself the real estate investment in the northern county was \$3,333, while in the southern county it was \$1,467. The equipment per school averaged \$963 in the northern county and \$673 in the southern. The enrollment averaged a fraction over eighteen pupils per school in the northern county and twenty-eight pupils per school in the southern county.

Reducing the material to a per pupil enrolled basis, the following pertinent facts are revealed. There was \$23,000 worth of real estate, according to market value, behind each pupil enrolled in a district in the northern county and a little less than \$2,000 worth in the southern county.

The assessed value of property taxed for school purposes per pupil enrolled was \$14,300 in the northern county and \$1,882 in the southern county. The value of school real estate per pupil enrolled was \$182 in the northern county and \$52 in the southern area. The value of equipment in the northern county was \$53 per pupil, and in the southern county \$24.

It is perfectly obvious that there is a great discrepancy in resources from which communities may contribute in providing school facilities and that there is a definite effort on the part of those with less productive resources to meet this difficulty by shouldering heavier burdens. The result, however, is that even with an increased burden the less productive community, on its own resources, is far less able to offer boys and girls the same opportunity offered those in the more productive districts.

Suggestions Regarding Financing the Rural School Program

The foregoing evidence of the existence of great variation in the ability of communities to finance an educational program at once introduces consideration of the problem of how an educational program may be financed or by whom the cost may be borne. From careful studies of the situation several facts seem to stand out:

1. The cost of operation of a school program must rest on very regular and dependable sources of revenue.
2. Financing current operation exclusively from a local property tax is impracticable in all parts of the state because if the tax is sufficient to meet needs, it results in partial or complete confiscation of property values except in the wealthiest districts.
3. Financing current operation from some form of local income tax would be impracticable because the base would be too narrow.
4. Expecting the local community to provide all the financing for current operation, when at least half of the children trained constitute only an expense to the communities and not future revenue producers, is obviously inequitable.
5. The financing problem in connection with school facilities should be separated entirely from that of financing current operation.

There is much to be said for the unwillingness of assessors to change the assessed value of properties so long as demands like the cost of school operation must be met from year to year regardless of what happens to property values. Not so much justification exists for the inequities as between properties. So long as local school revenues must come from the general property tax, the present policy of changing very little the assessed valuation from year to year should be continued. Knowing the fluctuation in tax delinquency in many communities to be what it is, it seems logical, even if somewhat impractical, to suggest that a school operating budget needs to be synchronized with the tax experience of the community. It should permit the creation

of reserves in good years to be carried over into years when delinquencies are high, in order to avoid embarrassment of the administrative authorities in honoring school warrants. Such a procedure would be adopted as a matter of course in any first-class business administration. Another means of securing regularity of income would be to broaden the tax base for school purposes. This would be facilitated to some degree by simply enlarging the school district.

The mere existence of property with a sale value is not sufficient evidence that the property may have current tax paying ability. This fact is not highly significant so long as the tax burden remains light. Owners will gamble on small current payments of taxes if the long-time prospect for earnings of the property is sufficiently good. As the current burden increases, the prospects for long-time earnings must be discounted at constantly higher rates. The result is that current burdens soon have the effect of confiscating part or all of the property values. In this realm lies the largest and most powerful objection to programs of school consolidation, particularly when such programs promise considerably less in the way of program improvement than they do in improvement of facilities. It, therefore, suggests that other means than a local direct tax on property must be introduced to equalize the burden and give school costs a more direct relationship to ability to pay and to benefits received.

There are certain important principles which must be borne in mind in any attempt to expand the tax base for school purposes. First, it must not excuse recipients of an educational privilege from the realization that they should bear a just part of the cost. Second, such expansion of the base for financing the school program must not carry with it the loss of administrative control and responsibility by the local group. Third, it should involve a pledge on the part of the local school administration adequately to preserve and protect the school property, and to maintain minimum standards in the educational program which would be in harmony with educational standards maintained in any other part of our educational system. Fourth, it should provide assurance to the local people who are responsible for the administration of the program and the recipients of its benefits, that the program will embody those features which are especially adapted to the needs of the

rural community. It should not be a mere repetition of a program which has been developed to meet the needs of urban children. Fifth, the program should not only be one especially adapted to rural environment, but the qualifications of those who carry it out should be such as to fit them for making a good rural program worth most to rural children.

According to the best information available, slightly less than half of the rural children will remain in the country as shown in Table XVIII. These data are based on the assump-

Table XVIII

Replacement Needs of Male Farm Workers in Missouri, 1940-1950¹

Type of Farming Areas	Rank of Farm Areas in Farm Income	Number of Rural Farm Males, 1940-50		Per Cent Required for Replacement
		Reaching Age 20 Years	Lost by Death or Retirement	
I	2	17,411	10,163	58.4
II	4	14,565	8,801	60.4
III	3	7,344	4,229	57.7
IV	7	8,488	4,285	50.8
V	10	21,273	8,608	40.5
VI	5	10,660	5,887	55.1
VII	9	7,205	3,305	45.9
VIII	8	12,999	5,718	44.0
IX	6	6,505	2,352	36.2
X	1	11,987	4,028	33.6
State		118,437	57,366	48.4

¹Table prepared from data submitted by Dr. Lively of the Department of Rural Sociology, University of Missouri.

tion that farming requirements of the next generation will be similar to those of the past. Actually with the progress which is being made in improvement in agricultural techniques, it is more probable that fewer people will be required on farms in the future. We may actually find that still less than half of our farm boys and girls will spend their productive years in agriculture.

To the extent that the rural school program functions as effectively for its purpose as does the program offered to urban school children, the basic cost should then apparently be divided about equally between rural and urban groups. It is impossible to give an exact formula for financing the program

without knowing what that program will contain. It would seem that a logical approach would be first to consider what our educational program below college grade should attempt to do. More adequate allowance must be made for the particular needs of urban and rural groups, to equip them equally well for their productive activities. Then a determination can be made of what this program would cost, allocating these cost items to those groups who will eventually receive the benefit.

The question concerning the incidence of costs for current operation is an important one. Again taking for illustrative purposes the two counties used in Table XVII the following situation is found.

The northern Missouri county raised \$52,486 to meet an expenditure of \$73,184; while the southern Missouri county raised \$28,248 to meet an expense need of \$128,978. Thus with a local property tax within the school district, the northern Missouri county raised seventy-two per cent of its budget need, while the southern Missouri county raised twenty-two per cent. The balance, it is assumed, was derived from the state distributive fund. This statement may be in error to the extent that a portion of the disbursements were used for capital additions rather than for current operations. These figures are presented in Table XIX. This illustration probably shows the two extremes of where a good deal of state aid is required, where little is received, and none should be requested.

Table XIX

Paying the Operative Cost of the Rural School

Item	A Good North Missouri County	A Good South Missouri County
Total taxes collected in rural districts.	\$52,486	\$28,248
Total disbursements	73,184	128,978
Balance (State Aid)	\$20,698	\$100,730
Per cent of cost paid locally	72	22

It is evident from property values, tax load, and incomes in this northern Missouri county that the rural districts are not carrying the load they could carry. On the other hand, the southern Missouri county may be carrying as much or more of a

burden in its property tax as it should be required to carry. No doubt there are instances where loads are heavy in most any section of the state, and there is also the probability that some school districts are not doing as much as they could.

It is quite obvious that using property as a base in raising funds for rural schools has serious limitations. From a practical point of view it is a very expedient source of revenue, but in too many cases great injustice is done both in slighting the real school needs and over-burdening property. To avoid this difficulty the obvious suggestion is that the property tax be not abandoned, but that its importance should be greatly minimized. To avoid some of the difficulty even with a minimized emphasis, it would be necessary to broaden greatly the base. Considerable dependence should be placed on the sales tax notwithstanding its regressive aspects. Also the income tax should be retained and used both for current operation and especially for creating reserves to meet capital costs for additions to school plants.

Experience has shown that in providing improved physical facilities for schools, a special means of financing should be used. Bonding a community to provide the physical requirements for an adequate program often serves to reduce property values throughout that community in direct contradiction to the effect which an improved educational program should have. The rational program should have the effect of making it more desirable to own a home in that community. Too many cases are on record where the reverse is true.

The assumption that all children are equally entitled to adequate facilities, leads to the only conclusion which can be drawn—that adequate school plants will require about as much total capital outlay in one community as in another. As a consequence the only means of handling the problem will be to provide the funds from a very wide base so that no community will have to depend entirely on its own capital resources for these expenditures.

Providing the physical plant to house and thereby facilitate the conduct of an adequate rural school program might be financed in a manner similar to that of post offices. The objective would be to create facilities which would get the job done. This suggests that an income tax might be the chief source of revenue for carrying out such a program. Bonds of state or federal

origin could provide for current capital needs for the school plant. Income taxes, either state or federal, could be made to serve as the basis for meeting carrying charges and retiring such bonds. The variability in income from such a tax could be taken care of with the use of experience tables and the building of reserves in years of good incomes. Bonds for such purpose should no longer be designated as school district bonds but as state or federal education bonds. They would draw a much lower rate of interest and would not depend for payment on local property taxes. Past experience is sufficient evidence that in accomplishing the objectives in a real rural education program we must draw on new types of financing experience.

Conclusions

The following statements may be regarded as conclusions and suggestions resulting from the foregoing analysis. They may prove of value in contributing to the solution of this perplexing problem of raising the level of excellence of rural education up to that of agriculture, industry, commerce, and the professions.

Two general facts are obvious: (1) The present rural school program is not meeting the modern requirements of an adequate educational system; (2) the present physical facilities would not provide for an adequate program even if one were available.

To make good citizens, neighbors, and parents with the information, culture, and ideals essential thereto, the school program in the open country should embrace the added function of helping to make boys and girls more productive and skilled in an economic sense. Children can begin to acquire skills before the age of fourteen, we are told. This leads directly to the question of subject matter content of the program which would best serve the rural school.

As not all farm boys and girls will remain in the profession of agriculture, and as some will go no further than the rural school, it seems obvious that the rural school program has some obligation to relate subject matter to future occupations and living needs of rural children. Those who will remain in a rural environment should have the right to expect that the last three or four years of the school program should, along

with its other outcomes, fit them to use more skillfully the available forces, and thus achieve a better living level. Likewise, those who are looking away from the rural community might expect to get something from the program which would perhaps make them better prepared to enter the new field and thus permit them to rise more quickly above the unskilled class in their chosen vocation.

The personnel problem at once assumes more serious proportions as these program needs are visualized. At once there is recognized the need for more than a one-teacher school, and for a teaching staff of considerable maturity, experience, and specialized training. Year-round employment for at least a part of the staff, with more adequate living and working facilities, becomes a part of the requirement. Rewards, both money and accommodations, must be adequate to attract some of the best talent, and encourage these to regard the job as a profession and not as a stop gap. Training of such personnel should become a major consideration of teacher-training institutions. These agencies might find it desirable to learn more about the specialized nature of the training task for rural teachers, instead of largely ignoring this rural teacher field. There should be no basic reason why an adequately trained and equipped teacher for a rural school program should not be as well prepared for the job as a vocational teacher or a county agent. If the school is adequately equipped and covers sufficient territory to provide the enrollment necessary to make economical use of property and teaching staff, this would be entirely practicable. Minimum standards should be required just as they now are for vocational teachers at the high school level.

Attendance and enrollment problems are always with us. These involve not only transportation, but better synchronization of the school program with the labor needs of school patrons, and more nearly year-round use of a more pretentious and more servicable school plant.

The only defensible objective towards which to work is to provide enrollments large enough to justify a real modern educational program for rural communities, which will require all-weather roads, to transport the children to and from school. Instead of school districts of six to eight square miles and twelve to twenty children, the district could well be large enough to provide 200 to 400 pupils. Instead of 50 to 100 schools in a

county, there might be less than a dozen. Such schools would allow the teacher to concentrate attention on not more than two grades and from twenty-five to fifty pupils. It would provide sufficient numbers of pupils to justify emphasis on vocations at some place in the program. It would actually reduce the number of teachers needed in a county sometimes by over fifty per cent. The total cost of an adequate staff for a modern program need be little, if any, more than it is at present.

When the matter of physical facilities is considered, here indeed is a financing problem fully as complex as that of the school program. In fact, the two are inter-related. Again the two sample counties are drawn upon to provide a comparison. The northern county has a total real estate investment of \$180,000 and equipment valued at \$52,000, making a total present capital outlay for rural school physical property of \$232,000. This represents an investment of a little more than four thousand dollars per school (\$4,296). In the southern county the total investment is \$201,350 or \$2,140 per school. In many cases the real estate is represented by two to five acres of ground and a modest one-room school building per school district.

In order to provide a rural program commensurate with the needs and comparable with that of our better urban school programs, it would certainly require a more adequate physical plant than now exists in most rural areas. Facilities for work and living for at least five teachers would seem to be indicated. A farm home and farm enterprises would serve not only as a necessary year-round laboratory for agricultural students, but it would also constitute an important factor in securing and in retaining a good teacher of vocational agriculture. Work-rooms, shops, home economics laboratories and well-equipped offices would be necessary to give advanced students some idea of what working in industries other than agriculture would be like. Education specialists in this field have expressed the conviction that children from twelve to fourteen years of age can receive great benefit from such facilities and clearly they could be as readily used for older school children. This again suggests that for more complete use of equipment and other physical facilities, it would be economical to carry students through the tenth grade in the program plan. Subsistence facilities for the teaching staff might be integrated with other necessary physical facilities at a cost which would be more than offset by

personnel qualifications obtainable because of the completeness of the setup.

A modern school plant to go with a modern program and a highly qualified staff might involve a total investment of something more than that of the present inadequate facilities but a modern grain combine costs more than a grain cradle and its efficiency proves it to be a wise investment. The investment per pupil enrolled in the south Missouri county is now \$76.60, or just about as much as a dairy farm operator would invest in barn and equipment for a medium grade cow.

Equipment providing for the development of a rural school program which will place intelligent farm boys and girls above the unskilled labor class in non-farm employment or assure them that good farming practice and rural living offer possibilities of a completely satisfying way of life should be a highly desirable investment in any state.

Opinions of Missouri Farm Women's Home Economics Clubs Regarding Rural Education

A large number of Home Economics Clubs have been active among Missouri farm women for many years. These clubs are under the general direction of the Agricultural Extension Service of the University of Missouri College of Agriculture and their activities cover many interests of farm people, including rural education. In order to secure an opinion regarding certain matters connected with the study of rural education a brief questionnaire was sent to these clubs by the Study Committee, and over 400 replies were received representing ninety counties in the State. A summation of the replies is of real significance. There were four questions asked.

Question 1. How should the problem of small enrollments in the majority of rural school be met?

Of the four hundred replies, approximately 70 per cent said that the problem of small enrollments could best be met by some plan of combining or consolidating districts or by transporting to town schools, along with the improvement of roads which would make such plans possible. Forty-six per cent suggested redistricting or consolidation alone, as the remedy. The remainder of the 70 per cent suggested better roads and transportation facilities, presumably in connection with the

present system of transporting pupils mainly to town schools. Only 13 per cent of the four hundred indicated direct opposition to redistricting or consolidating schools.

There has been a widespread feeling that rural people are generally opposed to redistricting and consolidation, but these replies do not indicate that this feeling is of great importance, particularly among the more thoughtful of this group. This whole problem is one which requires very careful consideration, particularly by the rural people who are directly concerned.

Question 2. Is the training of your children in the rural schools reasonably satisfactory? If not, have you one or more suggestions for improvement?

The answers from these 400 people were very interesting. Over half answered yes. It is probable that the question was not properly worded, particularly by the inclusion of the word "reasonably". It is probably natural to expect that most country people would say that the instruction was *reasonably* satisfactory, since most of them may believe this is true. Also, it is understandable that many would not want to speak disparagingly of the school in which they were trained, largely because of loyalty to it. Then, undoubtedly, some did not really know what to suggest in the way of improvements.

The group which said the training was not reasonably satisfactory gave many suggestions for improvement. The most important of them, as indicated by the frequency of occurrence, were these: Better trained and more experienced teachers needed; more up-to-date library books and supplementary teaching materials along with more and better equipment; more training in the fundamentals of English, spelling, writing, and arithmetic; increase in teachers' salaries; extension of hot lunch programs; teaching of more music, etiquette, and cultural things; teaching of religion or Bible; teaching of more agriculture and home economics; provision for more, better and safer equipment for playgrounds; provision for combining districts, and for consolidation, along with better roads; more cooperation between teachers and parents; more Parent-Teacher Association organizations and more cooperation with 4-H clubs.

Question 3. Are the salaries of rural teachers, in normal times, adequate for retaining satisfactory teachers? If they are inadequate, what per cent should they be increased?

About half of the four hundred stated that salaries were adequate and most of the remainder said they were not, although there were some that gave no specific reply. The salary increases suggested were mostly in the 10, 15, 20, 25, and 50 per cent brackets, the largest group suggesting 25 per cent. A few suggested a 100 per cent increase.

The fact that approximately half suggested that salaries were adequate may be explained, first, by the possible feeling that at least half the teachers have so little training and experience as not to deserve more pay than they are receiving. It is true, too, that rural people, because of their thrifty point of view, may consider \$800 to \$1000 a year a pretty good salary for young women, such as most rural teachers are. On the whole, however, almost half of the four hundred felt that rural teachers' salaries were inadequate.

Question 4. Have you suggestions for improving the existing plans for transporting rural children to high schools and for improving high school instruction?

One-fourth of those replying to this question had no suggestions to make, but of those replying the following are in order of the numbers reporting: Improve roads; provide better and more modern busses; have more busses; have shorter bus routes; pick up children at home; provide more discipline on busses; secure better bus drivers; and provide shelters at bus stops.

Among the suggestions regarding improvements in high school teaching the following are in order of the number suggesting them. More and better teachers; more vocational training in high schools; reasonable school hours for transported pupils; and more home economics in high schools.

The four hundred clubs reporting on this questionnaire represent a fair cross section of the more progressive rural women of the state. In some cases the replies indicated that they represented the opinion of the club, while in other cases they were filled out by the president or secretary, evidently with little consultation with the other club members. In any case they represent about as good an opinion as can be secured from an interested group of rural women who, after all, are usually more concerned with the educational welfare of their children than are the husbands.

CHAPTER V

SOME SOCIAL FACTORS AFFECTING RURAL EDUCATION AND RURAL WELFARE

Land Settlement and Social Organization

RURAL social organization in Missouri has been profoundly affected by the general pattern of land settlement that has prevailed from pioneer days. When land was settled the plan followed was similar to that established in most of the states; i.e., it was distributive in nature. Each family homesteaded or purchased a tract of land upon which it lived. The land surveys generally created the rectangular township and the square section of land consisting of 640 acres. Where the terrain permitted, roads followed the section lines. This plan resulted in a checkerboard system in the level areas, a system that had to be modified in the hilly sections. With the prevailing notion that the proper family size farm consisted of 160 acres, the system provided for four families per section of land.

This system of land settlement provided the most scattered arrangement of farm families possible. One may contrast it with the farm village system of European and Asiatic countries and the line village system found today in Louisiana and parts of Canada. By comparison with these systems of settlement the system prevailing in Missouri fosters self-reliance and aloofness in the population. It hinders cooperation and makes the procurement of common utilities and services expensive. Distributing mail to such scattered families, providing them with roads, telephones, and electric current is more expensive than would be the case if the family arrangement were more compact. This system of scattered families not only resulted in small, scattered, open country schools and churches but it also has made it difficult to establish larger units to obtain greater interest and efficiency. It has been responsible for much delay in providing telephones and electricity for farm families.

Rural Social Centers

Since the farm families of Missouri are widely scattered over the agricultural land their relations to the villages are not close. Traditionally the villages were established by traders

and businessmen who wished to deal with the farmer. Thus they were commonly established after the farm land had been settled. Since pioneer days they have continued to be trading centers, primarily, with the addition of retired farmers and a few active ones who go back and forth to their farm land. Thus, a basic occupational cleavage and to some extent a psychological cleavage occurs between the farm population and the village population.

Before the turn of the century when means of transportation were poor the farmer's trade contacts were generally restricted to the nearest village and he tended to hold a sense of loyalty to the merchantmen of that center. In more recent years with the coming of better roads and the automobile the villages have been compelled to compete with each other for the farmer's trade. Conscious of this bargaining advantage, farmers have tended to shop around from village to village, even traveling some distance to the smaller cities for certain kinds of shopping goods. The result has been that the farmer has lost much of his sense of loyalty to the nearest village, and individual village areas of influence have become relatively indistinct. With the advent of good roads many of the smaller villages have declined and even disappeared. The smaller villages have become convenient centers for certain economic services and possess little additional significance.

The historical development just described has tended to deprive the farmer of a well defined institutional social center. In the earlier days when institutional developments were meagre and life simpler the farmer did not feel the need of a social life centered in the village. That the village supplied his trading needs was sufficient. Furthermore, recent developments in transportation have not been conducive to centering the farmers' interests in any particular village center. As a result the basis of a well defined modern rural community life has not been well provided. Although the village is the logical center for rural community life, it has not yet in fact become that center.

At present the most characteristic unit of rural social organization appears to be the rural school district. In terms of both area and population this unit represents a neighborhood rather than a community unit. With the decline of farm population the rural school district probably has less population

than before 1900, and it certainly has fewer children. From the standpoint of modern community life such a unit is entirely too small to provide the population, the wealth and the leadership necessary to accomplish any very significant social improvement. Until these smaller units give way to something larger, with institutions such as school and church patterned to match, Missouri farmers will be without what may be regarded as a modern rural community.

Developing New Social Centers

One of the first steps in improving the situation described above consists of developing the facilities for communication and transportation in rural areas, especially roads. Improvement of such facilities would tend to banish the attitudes of extreme localism and make country people more favorable to the larger population groups which are necessary to support modern institutions. As a result of changed attitudes in this respect some reduction in the number of small school districts and small country churches should follow. Larger school and church areas make for (1) greater effectiveness in the use of funds; (2) more modern facilities in terms of buildings and equipment; (3) better leadership; (4) greater development of the spirit of cooperation; and (5) a richer educational and social experience.

In bringing about these changes toward larger institutional or service areas the larger village is likely to become, to a greater degree than heretofore, the farmer's social center as well as his economic center. The modern farmer needs an up-to-date center that combines economic and social services. The small crossroads hamlet will scarcely supply this need. The modern rural school and church need the utilities, such as electricity and water supply, which the larger villages can offer. Furthermore, school districts which include both open country and village populations find it advantageous to locate their school buildings either in the villages or within walking distance. Such schools contribute much toward better community relations between farmers and villagers. Their value as social centers is also increased greatly by providing such facilities as a gymnasium, cafeteria, and an auditorium that will accommodate the entire population of the community.

It should be noted further that in the process of enlarging their school and church areas farmers should avoid centering these institutions in the smallest population centers. In the State of Missouri there are more than 3,000 villages and hamlets. Practically all of these centers provide some service to the farm population. However, more than eighty per cent of them have fewer than 500 population. This means that the greater majority supply very limited service to the people who live on farms. They cannot be regarded as adequate centers for the modern farmer. Probably the farmer needs a center of a thousand or more population to supply him with what may be regarded as up-to-date economic services and institutions. Such a center may be expected to provide a reasonably satisfactory economic center, a high school, one or two first class churches and recreational facilities, including a library, a newspaper and a health center. The smaller villages may be regarded as satisfactory for convenience services and for the location of elementary schools and the smaller churches. In many areas better roads are badly needed to make closer contact between farmers and the larger villages possible.

Population Factors

The rural population of Missouri is dependent chiefly upon agriculture and forestry for its support. Such has been the case and probably will be for many years to come. However, the agricultural resources of the state are variable in quality. With little regard for this fact, the people who settled the land spread themselves rather evenly over its surface. So long as subsistence farming was the rule, this mattered little; but the rise of commercial agriculture greatly accentuated these differences in agricultural resources and made some readjustments of population desirable. Unequal distribution of population in relation to resources leads to great inequalities in wealth, income and ability to support modern institutions including schools.

The changes in population necessary for a better adjustment to rural resources have not yet been fully made. In this connection one of the tasks of education is that of assisting rural people to adjust themselves to the land and other resources, so as to provide adequate income and stable social life. How-

ever, such adjustments are made more difficult by a number of population factors, including differential rates of natural increase, migration and the strong ruralism of the state.

Birth Rates

During the last century, birth rates were uniformly high, but the resulting surplus population moved on to free or cheap lands elsewhere. With the passing of free land the surplus rural population turned toward the cities. Also, with the growth of commercial agriculture the rural standard of living was raised and the birth rate declined. This circumstance resulted in the largest classes of rural children being born between 1920 and 1925. Since that time the number of rural children born has declined, striking a low in 1932 and 1933, when the economic depression greatly reduced the marriage rate. Some increase in the number of rural births has occurred since that time, especially since the war brought an increase in the marriage rate. However, there is every reason to suppose that after the war the birth rate will resume its decline, at least for a time.

The reduction in the number of rural children born during the last twenty years has, of course, reduced the number of children of school age and has been reflected almost annually for a number of years in the number entering school. The decrease has been by no means uniform throughout the population but has been much more pronounced in some areas. In many areas child scarcity has become a potent argument for enlarging school districts. As a whole, the rural population in 1940 was producing approximately thirty-two per cent more children than was necessary to maintain a stationary rural population. The number of counties in which the rural population has reached a stationary level is slowly increasing, and even in 1940 in one-third of the counties the rural-non-farm population was no longer reproducing itself. These trends in reproduction must be carefully considered in the formulation of plans for the financing and districting of rural schools.

Migration

One of the chief means by which the rural population adjusts itself occupationally is migration. There is no reason to suppose that all children born on farms are adapted to enter

the farming occupation. Furthermore, with the relatively high rural birth rate and the trend toward greater productive efficiency in agriculture, considerable out-migration was necessary lest the farming occupation become overcrowded. Also, the greater possibility of high economic return in the cities attracted large numbers from the rural areas. This attractiveness of city employment, fluctuates markedly with the degree of urban prosperity, and in periods of economic depression the rural areas having high birth rates tend to become overcrowded.

Because changes in the birth rate are not reflected in the labor market for nearly twenty years, the recent decline in the rural birth rate has not yet affected the labor market to the extent that it has affected school attendance. During the decade, 1930-1940, it was estimated that approximately fifty-four per cent of all farm-reared males attaining the age of twenty years would be needed to replace the losses of gainful workers in agriculture resulting from death and retirement alone. The actual percentage required was somewhat less than that because of an increase in the productive efficiency of farm labor during the decade. During the decade, 1940-1950, should there be no gain or loss in number of gainful workers owing to migration and no further increase in the productive efficiency of such workers during this time, approximately forty-eight per cent of all farm-reared males attaining the age of twenty years will be required to keep the number of workers in agriculture stationary. In other words, forty-eight per cent of these youth will be required to replace those workers lost through death or retirement. If further increases in the productive efficiency of farm labor should occur during this decade, and it seems probable that they will, the number, and, therefore, the proportion of farm-reared males required to keep the working force stationary will be reduced by that amount.

Available data show that the proportion of farm-reared males required to keep the number of gainful workers in agriculture at a stationary level varies considerably among the various sections of the state. In general the proportion required is highest in the best agricultural areas and lowest in the poorest agricultural areas. Thus, in the best farming areas of northern Missouri approximately three-fifths of all farm-reared males may be needed for replacement during the 1940-1950 decade. On the other hand, in the poorest farming areas of southern

Missouri the proportion that may be required ranges from one-third to two-fifths. The southeast Missouri lowlands offer a special case with very low replacement requirements because of the youthful population and a relatively high birth rate.

The implication of the foregoing statements is that during the present decade it is likely that not to exceed one-half of all farm-reared males attaining the age of twenty years will enter the occupation of farming. The proportion may be somewhat less. (In later decades, if the rural birth rate¹ continues to decline and the numbers in the country remain practically the same, the proportion required for replacement will be higher.) Thus, half or more of these males, and the proportion will be higher for females, will likely migrate to other occupations as has been previously indicated and will presumably locate in the towns and cities in this and other states. This fact has important implications for rural education. Not only must rural education share in the task of sorting these youth so that those who enter farming as an occupation will be farmers by choice rather than of necessity; but it must also help equip them to succeed in the occupation. Furthermore, it must help to give the best possible preparation to those youth who will migrate to other occupations. This is particularly true in the poorer sections where migrant youth have traditionally been prepared to do little but unskilled labor. In the better agricultural sections more and better schooling has resulted in a much higher proportion of farm-reared youth entering urban occupations at a level somewhat higher than that of unskilled labor.

Migration and Education

Various studies of rural migration have showed that the better educated youth leave the rural districts in higher proportion than those with less education. This may imply that, at present, rural education is not compatible with the occupation of farming so that the further a person goes with it the less interested he becomes in farming. In any event, it is a point which should be seriously considered in formulating programs of rural education. Farming as an occupation is becoming more difficult rather than less so and requires an increasingly broad technical training to insure success. It is highly desirable, there-

fore, that the farmers of tomorrow be men and women of at least average intellectual ability and that they shall be farmers by choice rather than of necessity.

It is to be noted, also, that in the best agricultural areas the losses of rural youth to other occupations are usually as great proportionally as in the poorest agricultural areas, sometimes greater. Indeed, it often occurs that the best agricultural areas tend to be depleted of their youth through migration; whereas, in the poorer areas where birth rates are higher, the losses through migration are insufficient to permit a proper adjustment of the population to its resources. Apparently these two extremes may be found at present in certain Missouri counties. These conditions suggest that one of the tasks of rural education must be that of adapting its content and methods more effectively to widely differing areas, to the end that a higher per cent of rural youth may be retained in the best areas and a lower percentage in the poorest areas.

Aging of Rural Population

An inevitable result of the declining rural birth rate and the heavy losses from migration is a progressive aging of the rural population. The villages have long been centers for the aged, but at present certain areas display similar characteristics throughout the rural population. In 1940, 8.1 per cent of the rural-farm population and 10.3 per cent of the rural-non-farm population was aged sixty-five or over. Before many years these percentages are likely to be considerably higher. In some areas elderly people are now as numerous as children. In such areas where few children are produced, or where they are not retained because of migration, additional population may be expected to infiltrate from elsewhere if there is sufficient economic opportunity. In the poorer areas such infiltration may not occur and the population may tend to die out. In either case, where elderly people predominate in the population, attitudes become conservative, security is emphasized and new educational policies are likely to be opposed. Yet attempts to keep such people abreast of the times should not be neglected. With this progressive aging of the rural population it would seem desirable to place increasing emphasis upon more and better programs of adult education.

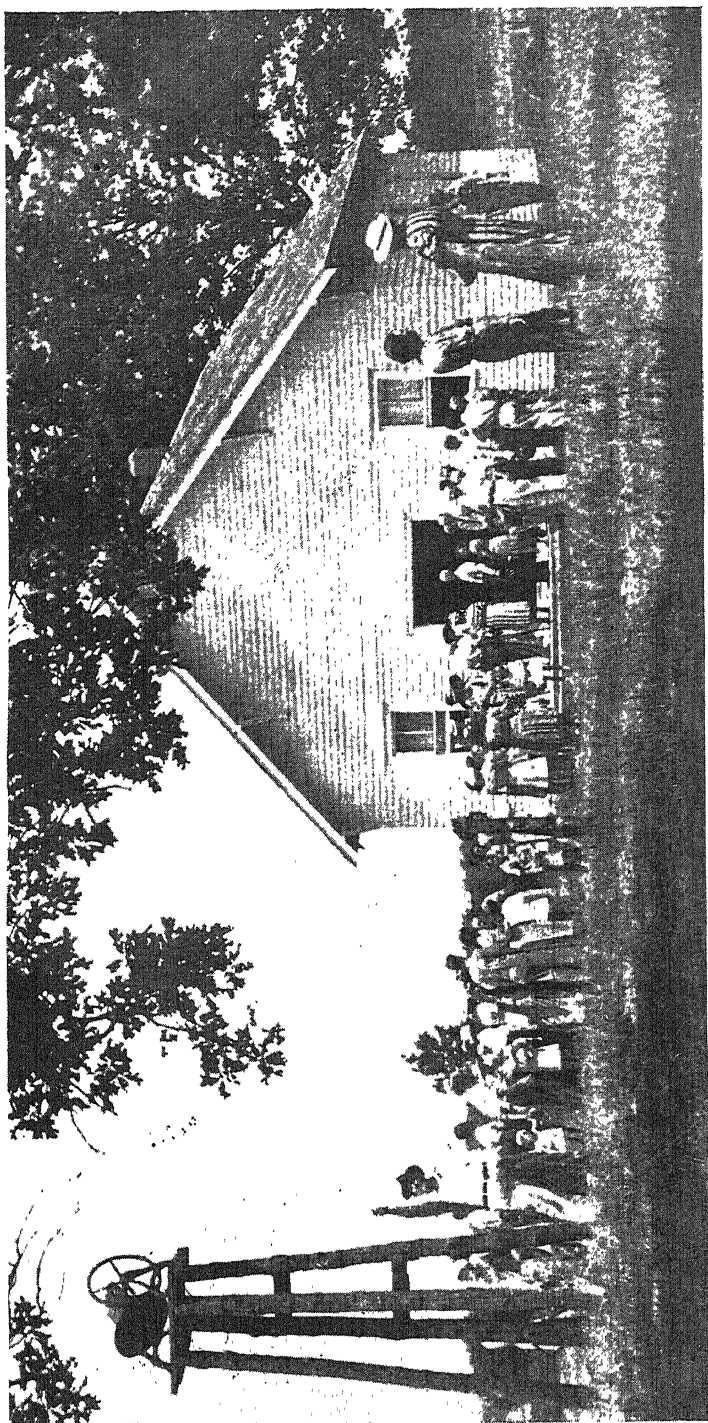


Photo by Townsend Godsey, Hollister.

A Rural Church in Missouri.

The Rural Church

A member of a rural home and community committee recently made the statement that "Man without a church is like a horse without a bridle." This doubtless represents the majority opinion of the thinking farmers of Missouri. Our democracy is based on Christian principles. It is doubtful if it can be maintained if such principles are disregarded. Moreover, democracy was developed in an agrarian atmosphere. As a consequence American farmers have generally been a religious people. They represent a stable element in the Nation. In the main, they are property-owning people. They believe in freedom and the principles of free enterprise. There may be a real threat to democracy if the numbers of this stabilizing element decline much further and if they are replaced by people on a weekly payroll, most of whom will own no property and who may be subject to the influences of the demagogue preaching a new and sometimes a foreign doctrine.

There seems no doubt that the future welfare of rural people is closely bound to stability of land tenure, to continued freedom of thought and action, and to the maintenance of a conservative judgment and a generally high level of moral and religious ideals which have been so characteristic of these people. It is, therefore, of fundamental importance that the rural church, or some means of providing for rural religious education, should have a permanent place among rural institutions. In the long run, it would appear that some form of rural religious education must go along with rural secular education if our country people are to retain a reasonable degree of security.

Unfortunately the rural church is no longer what it once was. Declining numbers of rural children, the competition of city and town churches, made possible by greatly improved roads and low cost automobiles, the attractions of the moving picture theatre and the development of the radio have combined to limit the number of active rural churches and the size of congregations. Finally the difficulty of securing and retaining capable rural ministers has added greatly to the difficulties. The salaries now paid ministers in the towns and cities along with the comforts of living in these locations have steadily removed the more promising men from country pulpits.

It should not be inferred from the above statements that all country churches are decadent. Some are flourishing with

full-time pastors and large congregations of both adults and young people. However, these churches represent exceptions rather than the rule. They are usually in the fortunate neighborhoods which have been blessed with good local leaders and with a rather high economic level of the rural families.

The University of Missouri Survey

No recent survey of the conditions and activities is available for all the rural churches of Missouri. A survey made by the Department of Rural Sociology of the University of Missouri in 1934 and published in 1935, covered approximately 3,000 white Protestant rural and small town churches throughout the State. Naturally, great changes have taken place since that time but some of the data is of value at this date.

Of 2,590 churches reporting on attendance, 20.8 per cent had less than thirty-five members and 54.4 per cent less than seventy members in 1934. Of 2,561 churches reporting on frequency of services, 21.2 per cent reported services every Sunday, (these usually in small towns), 23.5 per cent every other Sunday, 42.7 per cent one Sunday a month, and 10.9 per cent had very infrequent services. A total of 1,705 churches reporting gave definite figures for pastors' salaries. Of 404 full-time pastors the average yearly pay was \$968.33, with a range between \$579 and \$1357. The half-time pastors received from \$334 to \$485.

Denominational Surveys

Rural church data are currently available for only four denominations. These data are incomplete but of interest in showing the general situation regarding religious education in Missouri.

The Missouri Baptist General Association made an interesting rural church survey in 1938. Dr. Courts Redford's summarization of the average rural Baptist Church is well worth repeating:

If you and I could find a Baptist Church like unto which there are more than any other kind, what sort of a church would we find? It would be a one room frame building in the south part of the state, located in the open country, having a membership between fifty and one hundred. It has services only once a month and is without a pastor six

months in every three years. It is on a highway and can be reached, even in bad weather, by sixty per cent of the members. The distance to the farthest member is $4\frac{1}{4}$ miles. Forty-three per cent of the members are men and fifty-seven per cent are women. Sixty-nine per cent are adults and thirty-one per cent are minors.

Dr. Redford reported that of the 23.4 per cent of the rural Baptist Churches with membership under fifty, fifty-one per cent of these lost membership in the past ten years; of the 30.7 per cent having from fifty to ninety-nine members, fourteen per cent lost membership. Clearly, the small churches are those being decimated the most.

Dr. Redford estimated that of the 1,714 Baptist Churches in rural Missouri in 1938, twenty-five per cent had pastors serving full time, eighteen per cent three-fourths time, twenty-eight per cent one half time and 45.2 per cent (almost one half) had only one service in the month.

The General Baptist Association has a full knowledge of rural conditions and definite plans to aid the rural churches of its denomination. The Association has established a system of missionary pastors and associational missionaries, paid by the General Association. The Missouri Baptist General Association contributed in the fiscal year ending September 30, 1943—the last figures available—the sum of \$17,000 for the missionary pastors and \$23,000 for associational missionaries.

The Presbyterian Church has only about 200 churches in rural Missouri but the need of more work with these organizations is recognized by the Missouri Synod. From information furnished by Rev. Ralph A. Waggoner, executive secretary of the Synod, the Church's aim is to provide parishes that number from two to seven or more churches and to have a capable pastor in charge of each parish. Many of their rural ministers have been trained for rural work and the church insists upon five year terms insofar as possible. The basic salary is from \$1500.00 to \$1800.00 per year plus the use of a manse. The church also has a system of retirement pay for the elderly ministers that affords the minimum pension of \$600.00 per year upon reaching the age of sixty-five. The church is recognizing the need of subsidizing rural parishes and in the last ten years, the contribution to this work has varied from \$15,000 to \$18,000 per year, the exact amount depending upon the general church finances.

According to an estimate furnished by Rev. Newton E. Barrett of the Missouri Conference, there are 425 rural Methodist Churches in the open country and in villages of less than 1,000 population. Rev. Barrett estimates that only four of the rural churches have service every Sunday, sixty-five have services twice a month and 356 have one Sunday service per month. Of the 197 rural pastors, 181 are residents in their circuits. The average salary paid to the rural ministers is \$1,011.00 a year. The vast majority of these are either young men just starting in the ministry or those who have not made a success in other charges. There is no special training for rural ministers and the young men naturally migrate towards larger and better paying city and town churches.

Rev. R. B. Schuler of the Archdiocese of St. Louis furnished information concerning the position of the Catholic Church in rural Missouri. There are 217 rural parishes with resident pastors and seventy-eight additional rural parishes, called missions, that are served from nearby parishes. Exact figures on the membership in these rural parishes were unavailable but there has been a considerable increase in members in the last ten years due to the special efforts made by the Church to strengthen its rural membership. The pastors of the rural parishes are all trained for working with country people and this is aided by the Catholic Rural Life Conference. The nuns who are teaching in rural parish schools are also especially trained for this work. A great amount of religious education is done through the parish schools, of which there are 164 in the state.

The young people's movement in the Catholic Church has always been one of its important activities and even with the drain upon rural young people by War's demands and their migration to War industry plants, this work continues. The children of Catholic families are well grounded in religious teachings.

Current Opinions

A number of people scattered over rural Missouri, largely members of the Home and Community Committees of the county farm bureaus were requested to give their impressions of the rural church. The reports indicate that in many rural

areas there are vigorous rural churches, which are retaining their membership, undertaking community enterprises and leading the way toward the better life. There are, also, many areas reported where the rural church is either dying or dead.

The people reporting from communities that had a good rural church, usually indicated that some person or group of persons providing leadership were responsible for keeping the church alive. In some areas, real leadership by the pastors was reported, but the larger number of such thriving religious communities seem to be founded upon the work of either an individual or a group of lay persons. In some cases, the solution of the problem seems to have been that one denomination absorbed all others or a type of federated church was developed.

From these reports received from all over Missouri, there seems to be a leaven of good rural churches in all counties, which may provide for important future developments.

The Problems

The most outstanding problem of the rural church is to capture the interest of young people. If the young people do not enter the Church and take an active part in its work, there is soon a dying congregation. The rural church, with the exception of the Catholic, seems to be making slow progress in interesting the young people. Possibly, there is not enough attempt to use the local church as the community center. A working church would seem to be one where the edifice would be used for many community gatherings other than just services once or twice a month.

The second problem is that of more Christian training among children and young people. A part of this can be done through Sunday Schools but in many areas Sunday Schools are too far away for continuous attendance of many children. Better trained teachers is one of the problems, since an interesting Sunday School teacher, whether teaching children or adults, draws attendance. A secondary approach to this problem is that of securing more non-denominational religious teaching in the rural public schools. It must be recognized that there are varying opinions concerning this approach. It is manifestly impossible for the rural school to follow the plan of some city schools—of releasing pupils at certain periods each week to

attend their own religious schools. Any education along this line in rural schools will have to be made a part of the school program, but as long as the instruction is absolutely free of sectarianism, this is a legitimate and very promising plan.

The third problem is that of providing satisfactory rural pastors. As long as the rural ministry is regarded as merely a stepping stone to better paid town and city charges, only slight interest can be expected among young pastors in establishing themselves in rural fields. Under such circumstances, there can be little community leadership expected from them. The most promising proposal for solution of this problem is for the general church to recognize the need of subsidizing its rural communities by taking sums contributed by larger more prosperous churches and guaranteeing salaries and living conditions that will be comparable to those in towns and cities. When this is done and not until then, can it be expected that the rural pastor will be trained for his work, be satisfied with his opportunities and become a living part of his community.

The fourth problem is that of church consolidation or federation. Either churches federate or strong denominational ones absorb the weaker, as the one church idea grows. This idea has gained some ground in the last generation and in some instances, community churches have developed, while in others, a strong church of one denomination has absorbed the other denominations and thereby become the one church of the community.

The Catholic Rural Life Conference

A very significant recent development for the betterment of rural conditions, particularly among Catholic people, is the Catholic Rural Life Conference. The principal objectives of the Conference are to anchor more Catholic families on the land and to extend religious education among rural parishes. The Conference adheres to the principle that "the country is the cradle while the city is the graveyard of the nation". As a consequence, an attempt is made to bring to rural people "a better appreciation of their opportunities" while "they are encouraged to remain on the land".

The support of this Conference is from voluntary subscriptions. The magnitude of the movement is indicated by the fact

that this voluntary support to the Missouri Conference for 1944 totaled approximately \$400,000. While the educational features are largely religious, services are given to farm people in the encouragement of a better appreciation of rural life among the people of both country and city, in helping families to find desirable locations, in assisting farm people in utilizing the various state and federal farm agencies, and in many other ways. The wide interest in the work of this Conference among rural Catholic people is evidence of the efficiency of its program.

Rural Health

Good health is not to be taken for granted. Whether one is born with or without physical handicap, with or without a good constitution, good health is not entirely God-given. Even the person who has inherited a good constitution and freedom from defect requires a good environment, and he must adhere to the laws of healthful living if he is to remain in good health. This requires both knowlegde and good habits. Unlike many of the lower organisms, human beings possess no instincts which tend to guide them in avoiding the pitfalls of Nature that tend to destroy them. Furthermore, they live in a complex and changing world. No body of knowledge, no set of habits is sufficient to protect them throughout life. New conditions arise, new diseases appear, new remedies, and new precautions are devised. These must be learned and incorporated into individual habits.

Illness usually involves loss of time to the person afflicted and some disruption of the usual activities. It may also inconvenience others and cause them to rearrange their activities. Furthermore, when individuals are ill, it is commonly necessary for other persons to concern themselves with their care. The number of persons engaged in treating and caring for the sick, in making drugs and appliances for their use, and in operating institutions to serve them is very great.

The economic burden of caring for the sick falls most heavily upon active adults, for illness rates are highest among children and elderly people. Illness, especially the chronic types, increases with age, the increase being particularly noticeable after fifty. When old age is accompanied by much illness, the burden of care is greatly increased. If the family is

the responsible agency for providing this care, the economic burden thereby placed upon producing members of the family becomes heavier. If, on the other hand, the public is largely responsible for providing support and care for the aged, illness inevitably means increased money allotments, and an increased number of social workers, nurses, and institutions devoted to the service of these public charges.

The state of health is a factor which conditions the available man-power of a population. In any period of man-power scarcity, the health of the people is particularly important. For example, the number of persons fit for some sort of military service may be high or low, depending upon the relative freedom from physical and mental defect. Also the number of persons suited for the most exacting military service is affected accordingly. This is of particular significance in modern warfare because of the fact that it has become a highly technical and highly exacting form of conflict which only those who are in the best physical condition can withstand. On the non-military side, the importance of health may be seen in that it conditions the number of persons who are capable of full-time employment at any given period and the number who are capable of sustained strenuous labor.

From the standpoint of education, health is also important. Health conditions the ability of the individual to learn. This is particularly important among school children. It is well known that defects of such sensory organs as the eyes and ears may hinder a child's progress in school. It is sometimes overlooked that the occurrence of malnutrition, bad tonsils, colds and similar defects may dull the senses, reduce vitality and thereby retard the learning process. The individual becomes easily fatigued and the rate at which he learns declines; so, also, nervous disorders when not understood may affect the rate of learning, may cause the individual to be a misfit, and in other ways make it difficult for him to adapt himself and get along with his fellows.

Need for Health Improvement

There are various criteria for appraising the health of a people. Some of the most significant of these are the ability to pass a physical examination, length of life, the general ill-

ness rate and the sanitary condition of the environment. It is not possible to fully appraise the health of the rural population of Missouri in terms of these criteria at this time. Adequate data are not available. However, some information exists which throws considerable light upon the question.

With respect to length of life, the population of Missouri occupies a favorable position. The general death rates and infant mortality rates are near average for the United States. Rural and urban infant mortality are approximately equal. The expectancy of life at birth is considerably higher for the rural population than for the urban. It is not likely that the general death rate will fall much lower in the near future because of the increasing proportion of older people in the population.

The selective draft for service in the Armed Forces has recently provided a good indication of the ability of the male population to pass a comprehensive physical examination. While these examinations are not synonymous with a health examination, since they stress only fitness for military service, they are indicative of the physical status of the persons examined. The fact that approximately one out of every three males so examined was rejected indicates that the general physical condition of the Missouri population is far from what it should be. Moreover, in some rural counties, the percentage of persons rejected has been much higher than the state average. Recent physical examinations of clients of the Farm Security Administration in certain counties substantiate the findings of the draft boards. These examinations included both sexes of all ages and were carefully done. The results suggest that much improvement of the physical condition of the rural population is desirable.

A recent study of illness during a one year period among the members of more than 1,500 open country households in five counties of Missouri showed seventeen per cent of all persons ill on the day of the interview. An outstanding feature of this survey was the large amount of chronic illness found. Among families with low incomes, and in those rural areas relatively inaccessible to medical service, it was found that the illness rates were considerably higher than average.

As to the sanitary condition of the rural environment, it may be said that the frequent occurrence of such diseases as typhoid and tuberculosis indicate unfit protection from the

sources of infection. Careless handling of milk and other food-stuffs is known to occur. Most rural families have untested water supplies. The 1940 United States Census reported that more than six per cent of the rural-farm families of Missouri possessed no toilet facilities whatever. In some counties the percentage is considerably higher. Such conditions are indications of poor sanitation. They are potential sources of infection, and a menace to the health of the people. It should also be noted that in many rural areas, there is still considerable objection to immunization for such diseases as smallpox and typhoid. There can be little doubt but that considerable improvement in the sanitary conditions of the rural environment should be made.

In the face of these indications of poor physical condition and health in the rural population of Missouri, it must be admitted that there is grave scarcity of available medical and health facilities. If 1,500 persons per active full-time physician be taken as a standard, only forty counties were adequately supplied with physicians under pre-war conditions. Seventy-four counties had more than 1,500 persons per active physician. Only eight of the fifty-seven strictly rural counties were adequately supplied. In general, the most rural counties had fewest physicians in relation to the population. Furthermore, since the removal of a considerable proportion of these physicians to serve in the Armed Forces, the scarcity is much greater and fifty-three per cent of those remaining are over sixty years of age. Many rural families must rely largely upon home remedies and other devices for self-treatment in time of illness.

General hospitals in rural Missouri are also scarce. Although there are 102 such hospitals in Missouri, seventy-five rural counties have none. Only five counties appear to have sufficient hospital beds to meet the needs of the population, i.e. four beds per thousand persons. Thirty-eight counties have some hospital facilities but an insufficient number of beds. In many rural areas the people must travel from fifty to seventy-five miles to reach a hospital.

In 1943 more than one-half of all counties had no public health nurse. Although a number of counties had the part-time services of a public health nurse, her efforts were spread over too much territory to be effective. Only fifteen counties had full-time public health organization. Thus the extension of public health work to the rural areas has not yet proceeded far

Need for Health Education

As indicated above, available information with respect to physical examinations, illness rates, and the condition of the rural environment, all point to the same conclusion: i.e. that the rural population of Missouri is in need of health improvement. Under these circumstances, it must be concluded that there is a strong *potential* demand for better medical and health facilities. It appears, however, that the *effective* demand for such facilities is relatively low. That is, the effective demand is not sufficiently great to draw an adequate supply of physicians to the rural area to build hospitals and to obtain local health organization units. In the main, such a condition must be attributed to the existence of relatively low health standards. While it is true that among a considerable proportion of the rural population, inability to pay the full costs of modern medical and hospital service is a factor in reducing the effective demand for better health facilities, it is also true that in some areas the effective demand for these services appears to be lower than the amount of wealth produced would suggest. If this interpretation is correct, the situation can scarcely be improved until rising health standards transform the existing potential demand for medical and health facilities into an effective demand. This is the function of health education.

At present some health education is being carried on in rural areas. The State Board of Health does effective work in those few counties where county health units occur. The Division of Health Education is active throughout the State. It prepares materials, offers field service consisting of lectures and educational films and provides consultation for groups interested in promoting health education. In 1943 it provided 1,757 public lectures and 1,130 film showings. In addition, public health news was distributed to 600 newspapers.

The American Red Cross through its division of Home Nursing carries on important educational work. The educational work in human nutrition provided by the Agricultural Extension Service and Farm Security Administration is both excellent and widespread. In the public schools, the hot lunch which is rapidly spreading in rural areas is not only an important contribution to nutrition but gradually molds the habits of school children in favor of a better diet. Where offered,



Photo by Townsend Godsey, Hollister.

Rural Health Clinic.

course work in human physiology and hygiene is also important.

These efforts to promote health education in rural areas are noteworthy but insufficient. Until rural people understand more fully the nature of their health problems and the contribution that modern science, intelligently applied, can make toward their solution, the effective demand for modern health facilities and health education is likely to continue at a low level. The evidence at hand indicates that poor sanitary practices, poor dietary habits and the use of patent remedies and other nostrums are common in the rural districts. Add to this the common fear of hospitalization and immunization, insufficient knowledge of the nature and use of existing medical and health facilities, and a meager knowledge of the principles of healthful living, and the need for widespread and sustained health education becomes apparent. Rural people must be supplied with reliable health information. They must be encouraged to adopt sound health practices. They must be served by reliable educational sources which will counteract the misinformation and propaganda to which country people are constantly exposed.

What Can Be Done

One of the most encouraging developments of recent date is the rapidly growing interest of professional, medical and health agencies (especially the Missouri State Medical Association and Missouri State Hospital Association) in providing adequate medical service for the rural population of Missouri. Such a program would involve the establishment of a system of local and district hospitals so distributed as to reach the population to good advantage. It would also involve the development of ways and means to provide and maintain a supply of practitioners so distributed as to serve the rural population adequately. If such medical facilities were provided, it would be possible to extend to rural people the same types of group hospital and group medical insurance now being successfully offered to the urban population. The educational value of the existence and functioning of such services in rural areas would be very great. While some progress is being made in these fields among rural people much remains to be done.

There is pressing need for a more widespread and effective program of human nutrition. The obvious benefits of the hot school lunch in the schools should be extended, and additional ways and means must be found to make good nutritional practices attractive to more people. Customary food habits are highly resistant to change. Furthermore, rural people are now constantly exposed to much mis-information and misleading propaganda regarding foods and diets. Careful investigation and study to devise ways and means to make the teaching of nutrition more effective should be undertaken by the various educational agencies interested in these problems.

The health work of the rural public schools should be greatly expanded. Every school child should be provided with an annual physical examination to determine the occurrence of defects and to provide for the correction of them. The State can no longer afford to ignore the failure to correct the physical defects of childhood. If neglected, they impair the adult life later. Furthermore, the rural schools should undertake to teach health education and the principles of healthful living by means of a system adapted to all grades of the elementary and high schools. Some health education should be required of all public school teachers, and special training should be required of those teaching the subject in the higher grades. The school



Rural School Lunch Program.

environment should be made a healthful environment and children should be taught to understand how and why it is so. Real life situations must be used by teachers to supplement the more artificial situations of classwork. The school lunch and the physical examination provide perfect teaching situations for impressing children with the importance of health principles. Good use should be made of them and other similar opportunities.

An effective and widespread educational program of sanitation should be undertaken. It should include home, farm and community sanitation and the application of sanitary principles to personal hygiene. Rural people need to be more fully informed regarding the nature and occurrence of the common sources of infection such as water, milk, food, sewage and insects, and how to control them. The program should also include information regarding the relation of animals to the spread of disease. And finally, rural people should be encouraged and assisted to understand more fully the nature of their own local health resources and how to use them to best advantage.

There is room for many persons and agencies to assist in this educational program. The schools can do effective work among the children with respect to nutrition, physical defects and personal hygiene. Such work is bound to be reflected in home and community practices. Other educational agencies such as the Agricultural Extension Service and the State Board of Health can do much. Civic minded groups and agencies such as the Red Cross, the Farm Security Administration, the Farm Bureau, the Grange, and the Missouri Farmers Association, can be very helpful. Local clubs and organizations such as Kiwanis and Women's Clubs can be highly influential; they can interest local people in studying their local needs in the light of what modern science can do to improve health and physical welfare. Health education is primarily a layman's job. For success it requires the interest and active support of an enlightened lay leadership. The first task is to provide that leadership.

Library Facilities

Librarians, in common with other Missourians, have exhibited a timely interest in the conditions which will prevail in their State and in the Nation in the postwar period. They believe that libraries are fundamentally essential to the maintenance and strengthening of the democratic processes. They know that the existing facilities are inadequate for continued learning essential to the kind of adult citizenry required by a democracy both in coverage and type. They know, also, that the boys and girls of school age in rural and in some urban areas are not at present able to take full advantage of the curriculum offered by the educational system because of the lack of the necessary supplementary materials offered by adequate library service.

From reports gathered by the Committee from public, school, college and university libraries, it was found that forty-three per cent of the population of Missouri or a total of 1,685,089 people live in areas not served by a public library. There are 1,670,089 of these people living in rural areas. In these same areas, the school reports show inadequate library coverage.

Forty-three counties have no tax-supported library service within the boundaries of the counties. Ten of these counties have no library service of any kind. Ninety-five municipalities are maintaining tax-supported libraries; ninety-eight municipalities maintain subscription or otherwise non-tax supported libraries; there is only one tax-supported county library, serving both urban and rural populations. The per capita expenditure for public library service is twenty-nine cents.

School library service presents no better picture. One thousand one hundred questionnaires were sent to superintendents of county and city schools and from this sampling, less than half of the returns reported expenditures for library services. The median expenditure for the rural school libraries reporting was \$35 a year.

Missouri has about ninety-one per cent of its rural population living in areas served by no public libraries or by such inadequate units as to make library facilities to rural people nominal. Rural schools present little if any improvement as far as library facilities are concerned. Most rural schools re-

port inadequate funds to supply reading materials, and visits to rural schools show that most of the books on the library shelves are old, worn and for the most part unattractive. It is true that most rural schools do possess an encyclopedia, a dictionary and an atlas or a globe, but the library's supplementary reading materials are, in most instances, inadequate. If the funds of the county schools, provided for books and libraries, were pooled with public library funds of the county, good libraries could be organized to serve both the adults and the children at a very low cost.

Missouri is fortunate in having a State Library Commission which has an understanding of the current library needs of the state. Although it is forced to work under the handicap of a limited state appropriation, this commission has rendered real service to the schools of rural Missouri. Last year requests for service came from 113 counties in the state. Every county but one requested library service in the form of current materials in order to meet special demands in their communities, supplementary book collections and advice and help in administrative and operative problems, such as book selection, classification, cataloging and personnel. The requests from individuals having access to no public library in their community increased during the past year. They requested informational materials on current social, economic and political problems; recreational reading; and materials to help solve a particular problem connected with the earning of their livelihood. About one half of the individuals who borrow recreational reading depend entirely upon the book services of the Commission for their reading materials; most of the borrowers of informational materials depend wholly on the state agency. Study clubs call on the Commission each year for help in the preparation of study club programs and place a request for materials to be sent to the club members in time to allow time for preparation of their programs.

Teachers and principals of schools place a standing order for ten books to be sent them each month in addition to the collections of books selected, according to grade and number of pupils, and sent on a loan of three months.

Some requests are received regularly from members of rural extension clubs for materials to help in the preparation of the work the club is carrying on, and some of the groups

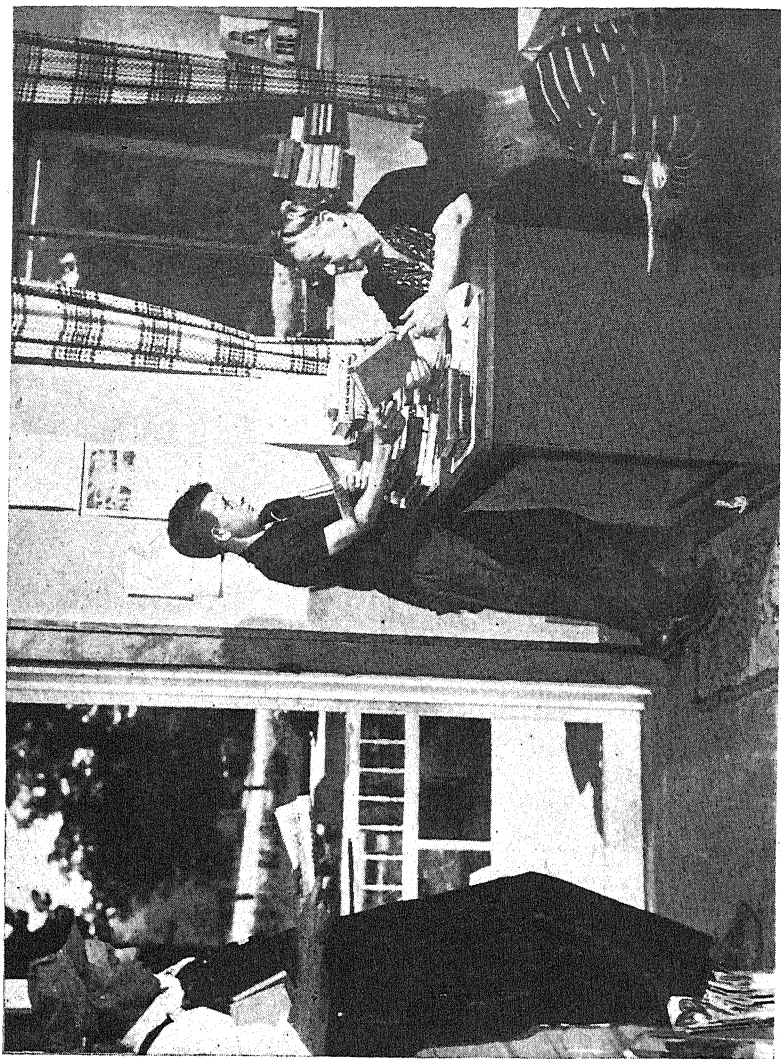


Photo by Townsend Godsey, Hollister.
A Rural Library in Dent County.

receive collections of fifty books for the use of the extension club members and their families for their recreational reading.

A total of 162 public libraries, many with an annual appropriation of less than \$300, called on the Commission this past year to supplement their collections by sending each month ten new books to be circulated in the community and for collections of fifty books on a three-months loan. Many requested material on special subjects and specific titles, not owned by the local libraries, to meet particular needs. The demands far exceed the existing facilities.

Adult Education in Rural Areas

The responsibilities of those interested in rural education and rural welfare do not stop with the rural elementary school and the rural or small town high school. These carry on into various types of adult and out-of-school youth education which have gained greatly in importance during the last quarter of a century. It is truthfully said that one's education should continue throughout life and the need for this is nowhere more important than among rural people. Farming is a complex enterprise in which each farmer is the manager of an independent business. Moreover, there is no business that is subject to more hazards, particularly those of weather, of difficult judgments and of changing and uncontrolled price levels. A successful farmer must, therefore, be a constant student of nature and of affairs.

What has been said of the individual farmer is only to a slightly lesser degree true of the farm woman, since she has long been faced with a greatly needed modification of her work routine in order to do away with the drudgery that has always plagued her life. Continued education is necessary if she is to be kept informed of the developments in labor-saving devices and improved techniques in the farm home.

Finally, there is the large group of boys and girls belonging to the 4-H clubs and similar organizations, as well as that older group of country young people just entering upon the responsibilities of self-support. Some of these will remain on the farms of the country and some will go to the towns and cities. All of these rural people, young and old, should be provided with the best adult or out-of-school education which can

be offered. Something has been accomplished in this type of education but a great deal needs to be done.

Adult education is distinguished from organized school education, not only by the greater maturity of the individuals receiving it but by voluntary attendance and by activities which are often secondary to those of making a living. While it is true that much of it has vocational aspects and some of it is wholly vocational in character, its general purpose is to enable one to meet the responsibilities of a citizen and a member of society. It is a means of teaching those things which make for better living, for greater culture, and for all of those things which broaden and enrich people's lives.

The agencies contributing to adult education for the people as a whole are many and varied. Those serving rural people directly are more limited, yet if they were properly utilized most country people could be served. The following are the more important of these: The Agricultural Extension Service, the secondary schools, College and University extension, libraries, women's organizations, farm organizations, fraternal and other societies, short courses, correspondence courses, people's institutes, county councils, summer camps, the press, the radio, and the motion picture. In addition there are federal adult education programs of wide diversity.

There is need for a greater development of adult education among the rural people of Missouri. It should be considered along with organized educational work in the schools and colleges. There is need for a coordination of the work of the various agencies now active in this field with over-all state direction. There is great need for the expansion of library facilities and there are great possibilities for utilizing the College of Agriculture as a center for the development of adult education programs for rural people.

The Agricultural Extension Service

Probably the most effective agency for rural adult and out-of-school youth education is that of the Agricultural Extension Service of the University of Missouri. This service, along with similar services in other states, was established through the passage of the Smith-Lever Act by Congress in 1914, as a part of the Land Grant College educational system. During the

Thirty years since its organization it has developed a far-flung program reaching into every community of the state.

The Agricultural Extension Service is a division of the College of Agriculture with an organization in every county. Its fundamental purpose is to carry to the rural people of the State the findings of the Agriculture Experiment Station and the teachings of the College of Agriculture. It, also, cooperates in an educational way with the various federal and state agencies serving agriculture, in order to assist in making their programs more effective.

The Agricultural Extension Service works on very democratic principles. In general, the programs of work set up year by year in the various counties are determined largely by the people themselves. The farm men and women meet with the county extension representatives in planning sessions, and it is in these meetings that the plans of work are developed. Thus the Extension Service assists rural people to use their own resources and the resources of their organizations and institutions, in solving rural problems. To carry out these purposes (1) it assists the people in analyzing their problems, (2) it assists them in extending to large numbers of farm people the information available at the College of Agriculture, (3) it assists them in organizing themselves into effective groups for solving individual problems, and (4) in return it acquaints the staff of the Agricultural Experiment Station with those problems most in need of investigation and study.

The job of extending to rural people the useful and practical information on subjects related to agriculture, to the farm home, to rural youth, and to rural institutions is carried out by a small extension staff in each county. On January 1, 1945, this staff was made up of 112 county agricultural agents (extension agents), serving as many counties, while two counties were served by a single agent. At the same time there were eighty-four home demonstration agents, two of which were colored. These agents, with an occasional assistant agent in some of the more active counties, form the county staffs.

During the war emergency these county agents, both men and women, are serving in many other roles. Their activities include such services as: (1) Serving on county war boards; (2) acting in an advisory capacity to machinery and other rationing boards; (3) serving as members of nutrition commit-

tees; (4) supplying information for county selective service boards in the deferment of necessary farm workers; (5) advising returning service men who are interested in farming; (6) making numerous surveys; (7) organizing and directing increased production of needed special war crops; (8) recruiting, placing and training farm labor; (9) organizing emergency production and food preservation programs and training new workers; (10) assisting in organizing and conducting war bond drives; (11) assisting in organizing the collection of salvage material for war production; and (12) helping to build and maintain the morale of farm people.

In each county office there is an office secretary, or sometimes two. These people assist in answering inquiries, preparing teaching material, such as charts, news articles and demonstration data, and to give to rural inquirers in person, by phone or by letter, the kind of information requested.

In the average Missouri county having both an agricultural agent and a home demonstration agent there are approximately 9,800 farm men, women and children. There is almost an equal number of people in the rural towns and villages with whom these agents endeavor to work. It is obvious that the small extension staff in such a county cannot, unaided, effectively reach such a large number of individuals. As a consequence, one of the basic goals of the Extension Service is to discover and develop leadership among rural people. The extent to which this goal is being met is indicated by the fact that during 1944 approximately 68,000 rural men and women served as volunteer local leaders in jobs ranging from planning and organizing programs to doing actual subject-matter teaching. The remarkable improvement in leadership among thousands of these individuals and the development of confidence in their own abilities represent outstanding accomplishments in this far-flung program of rural adult education.

Farm Women's Clubs

One of the most remarkable developments in the program of rural adult education in Missouri is that of the Farm Women's Clubs. The largest group of these is the Women's Home Economics Extension Clubs of the Agricultural Extension Service. These clubs have been developed through a long period of years and the number on January 1, 1945, was approximately

2,000 with a total membership of 32,000. The individual clubs are under the general supervision of the home demonstration agents and the club activities include every phase of home and community improvement. Meetings are held monthly at the homes of individual members and the programs deal with the various subjects in which the group is interested. A local leader presides and whenever possible the county home demonstration agent, or an extension specialist, participates. Similar farm women's clubs, somewhat less in number but working on similar programs, are those of the Missouri Farmers' Association. These clubs are rendering excellent service among the women of the state. The constructive educational work which these two groups of interested and serious-minded farm women are doing is having a far-reaching influence on Missouri farm people.

County Extension Programs

The county extension programs, including the maintenance of the county agents, are sponsored by the so-called sponsoring groups of farm people. At present, Farm Bureaus act as sponsors in fifty-two counties, the Missouri Farmers' Association in twenty-four counties and county extension associations in thirty-seven counties, while a soil improvement association is sponsor in one county.

As has been indicated, county agent programs are developed around county plans of work, drawn up in written form by the farm people with the assistance of the county agents. Naturally, such programs develop and change with changing conditions so that they must be modified frequently, but they represent formal and definite methods of educational procedure that make for coordination of effort and measures of accomplishment. Naturally, too, these programs cover a very wide variety of activities, such as methods of production, food conservation, nutrition, health, markets, 4-H clubs, soil conservation, balanced farming systems, Victory gardens, farm machinery, home conveniences, rural education, and many others.

Recently, at a series of conferences among community leaders and state extension representatives, the important postwar problems, as they appeared to these people, were outlined. After much consideration they were grouped under four heads, namely: an expansion of the ideas and practices of well-or-

ganized systems of balanced farming; the development of better homes and farmsteads; the improvement of the education and opportunities for rural youth; and a study of important agricultural policies at community, state, and national levels. The nature of these four suggested programs is indicative of the thinking of rural people.

There is a further demand for developing plans adapted to the culture and needs of rural non-farm people in the towns and villages. There is likewise need for an improvement in the training of county agents in methods of working with local leaders and in related fields with greater emphasis on psychology and rural sociology. Thus far, emphasis has been placed to a large extent on methods of increasing production and of developing greater economic returns. Greater attention should now be given to the social aspects of country living and to the improvement of those organizations and institutions in which farm people are interested. And finally, there is great need for a dissemination among rural people of that culture and that appreciation of the advantage of country living which lead to an abundant and satisfying farm life. The Agricultural Extension Service has the opportunity and the responsibility of working with all rural people, with all rural institutions, agencies, and organizations in the development of such a far-reaching program of agricultural betterment.

Adult Education in Vocational Agriculture and Home Economics Programs

Adult education, as a part of the work of teachers of vocational agriculture in high schools, represents one of the most outstanding developments in this field. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, which established the plan of teaching vocational agriculture in high schools, stipulated that the object of vocational education in agriculture "shall be to fit for useful employment" and that in addition to serving high school youth it should "be designed to meet the needs of persons... who have entered upon or who are preparing to enter upon the work of the farm".

The out-of-school persons mentioned in this act fall naturally into two rather distinct groups. One group is composed of mature farmers who are established as owners or operators, usually married, and more or less definitely committed to farm-

ing as a means of making a living. The other group consists of out of school farm youth and young men on farms, not yet established in farming as operators, usually unmarried, and ordinarily somewhat uncertain of their future, although leaning strongly toward agriculture as their life occupation. Members of both groups can profit from systematic instruction in agriculture, but the specific requirements for the two groups are different. That these two classes of adults recognize their needs is attested by the increasing number of courses and the larger enrollments each year.

There is little doubt that small town high schools will increasingly recognize and accept their responsibility for providing desirable educational opportunities and facilities for *all* of the people of the community, irrespective of age. This is particularly true in the area of agriculture since no other occupation is more complex, no other more changing, than is farming. In addition to the instruction received through high school classes, young farmers need help and guidance in becoming established; the older farmers need and welcome the opportunity for continued systematic instruction in order that they may keep abreast of the advancements in agricultural science.

Teachers of vocational agriculture have commonly regarded adult education as an integral part of their responsibility in the public school system of the State. As early as 1921, nine evening schools were organized in vocational agriculture in Missouri with an enrollment of 204 farmers. Later the need for special courses for the young farmer group was recognized and in 1926 the first classes were inaugurated. During the year 1944-45, teachers of vocational agriculture gave instruction in 186 courses attended by 5,128 adult farmers and in twenty-nine courses in which 335 young farmers were enrolled.

In addition to these old established courses, so-called "commodity courses" have been provided by vocational agriculture departments through special war-time grants of federal funds. These courses emphasize increased production and better methods in those enterprises which it has been necessary to stimulate because of war demands. In 1944-45, 1,536 of these courses were organized by vocational agriculture teachers with 22,040 persons enrolled.

Adult education in vocational agriculture is sponsored by the public schools and welcomed by the farmers. The voca-

tional agriculture teacher, frequently with the help of an advisory council, organizes the courses and directs the instruction. Most commonly the meetings consist of carefully organized discussions where all present participate and where practical experience and new information are contributed toward the solution of the problems which have been presented. Courses for adult farmers must operate through a series of at least ten meetings; courses for young farmers are held for a minimum of fifteen meetings. Class sessions for both groups are most commonly scheduled for the evening and during the winter months when farm work is less pressing.

There is little question that there will be an increased demand for such agricultural education service for adults as time goes on. The vocational agriculture departments in the public schools must look forward to meeting this demand in the most effective manner possible. Practical means include more efficient procedures and an increased number of well-trained teachers. Unless these teachers are thoroughly trained in the field of agriculture the whole program will be jeopardized.

Adult Homemaking Education in Missouri

In the Vocational Adult Homemaking program, special emphasis has been given to the improvement of family life through the study of nutrition and meal planning, child development, family relationships, renovation and construction of clothing, home nursing and other phases of family life.

In the St. Louis Adult Homemaking Program, a local supervisor and a full-time teacher of adults served the city. A plan for individual help on family life problems was inaugurated in which the teacher of adults gave specific time to conferences with homemakers on their problems. In 1942-43, there were 1,787 adults reached through these classes.

In Southeast Missouri, the district supervisor for adult homemaking teachers, assisted in planning courses and organizing classes and worked with the teachers on problems connected with conducting an adult program. In 1942-43 there were 550 homemakers enrolled in 29 classes taught in 18 of these centers.

During the school year 1942-43, a program for adults was sponsored in St. Joseph through the leadership of a full-time

local supervisor. Twenty-seven different groups met weekly for lessons in a phase of homemaking needs of each group. A total of 511 enrollees attended these weekly meetings.

There is increased recognition on the part of the home-making teachers of the importance of adult education in developing a community program. During 1942-43, there were 1,948 adults enrolled in 74 centers out in the state. The total adult enrollment in the state was 4,256 homemakers. In addition to the classes sponsored by local boards of education, 26 teachers taught Red Cross and Civilian Defense Classes. Nine teachers taught Red Cross classes in Nutrition with 186 enrolled, while three teachers taught Red Cross Home Nursing Classes with 78 enrolled. Forty-two teachers assisted in setting up and supervising school community canning centers under the administration of the Food Production War Training Program. Twenty-seven teachers taught Nutrition and Food Preservation classes in connection with this same program.

Also as a part of the community program for adults, teachers of home economics are developing other means of reaching homemakers in addition to the organized classes. Some of these other means are clinic meetings, demonstrations, exhibits, forums, consultation in the home economics department, home visits, newspaper articles, club programs, and small group meetings.

Special Agricultural Short Courses

For many years the University of Missouri College of Agriculture has been offering special short courses for adults, usually from two to five days in length. There has been a more or less steady increase in the number of such courses offered each year and also in the number of people in attendance until 1940, when there were fifteen different courses having a total of 6,357 individuals in attendance. After the declaration of war this work was materially reduced to conform with travel restrictions.

Short courses of the type indicated are designed to make available to farmers and others recent findings and important information in the different phases of agriculture. Usually they are technical in nature, they are offered on demand of

individual groups, and they are planned for those who are actually engaged in the type of work represented.

By use of such courses the College of Agriculture is enabled to use its staff and equipment for the benefit of many of the different branches of the agricultural industry. The new information developed by the Agricultural Experiment Station finds a channel for immediate use through these courses. Special outside lecturers, outstanding in their fields, are often included on the instructional staff. A real service is thus rendered to Missouri farm people and those engaged in related industries by these short, specialized, non-collegiate courses. It is anticipated that following the war these activities will be greatly increased.

Correspondence Courses

Most of the institutions of higher learning in Missouri offer courses by correspondence. Many private correspondence schools also reach Missouri people. These courses, which cover a very wide variety of subject matter, are of both collegiate and non-collegiate character. During the war the so-called "Army Institute", with headquarters at Madison, Wisconsin, was set up for providing such courses for men in the armed forces throughout the world. The demand for these courses has been amazing, coming from every theatre where American armed forces are stationed. Approximately 1,000 such men are registered in the correspondence courses of the Extension Division of the University under this Institute plan, a goodly number in collegiate courses in Agriculture.

There is no reason why, as the demand for adult education expands, correspondence courses should not be greatly increased, both as to type of offerings and number of enrollees. Most universities and colleges give regular college credit for the courses offered from their institutions, although the total number of hours to be counted toward a degree is usually limited. The greatest opportunity for expansion is among those who are not interested in college degrees but who wish information in various lines of subject matter for their own use or pleasure.

In the field of agriculture, considerable numbers of correspondence courses are offered, mostly of collegiate character. There is, however, a demand for agricultural courses of non-

collegiate character by farmers and by city people who have moved, or who are contemplating moving to farms. The mass of agricultural literature is somewhat appalling to many of these people, so that organized correspondence courses or simple reading courses which select and integrate this material in the different fields of agriculture are greatly needed.

Extension Center Courses

A number of the institutions of higher learning in Missouri offer courses at so-called extension centers, located in various parts of the state. In such centers the local registrants for the courses provide the facilities for holding the classes and the cooperating educational institution provides the teachers. In most cases the teachers are representatives of the faculties of the cooperating institution who make regular trips to these centers for meeting the classes. In some cases the institution cooperates in providing the course but a teacher is selected from those in the community who has the training and educational experience adequate for giving satisfactory instruction in the chosen field. Thus far, these courses are usually given for local teachers who wish to improve their professional standing, but there is no reason why such courses could not be adapted for other adults who desire particular lines of training.

There is much need and opportunity for an expansion of the extension center type of adult education as related to rural people. It is one of the fields in which there should be an increasing interest. Educational institutions which are interested in serving the public should avail themselves of the opportunities offered.

The Press and Adult Education in Rural Areas

The influence of the press as a means of education is too well known to need particular comment. The farmer is a constant reader of his local county or small town weekly paper. Such papers carry not only local news but large amounts of educational material, some syndicated and some from various state and county sources. Most progressive farmers take one or two farm papers which are rather carefully read. These always carry much material of educational value which appeals to all members of the farm family. Finally, under the rural

mail delivery system, there has been a wide development in the reading of daily papers. However, the distribution of the regular farm papers and the daily papers does not reach great numbers of farmers in the lower income levels. It is here that an increase in farm income would be very helpful in promoting this type of adult education.

Radio and Rural Adult Education

Radio is assuming a more important part in adult education. An obvious reason is that vital and dramatic happenings which concern all individuals take place constantly and rapidly. In an effort to keep up with these developments both town and country people have acquired new knowledge about places, military activities, governments, peace plans, and similar subjects.

Improvement in methods of presentation on the general programs has helped create interest. Programs such as "Information Please" and the public forum-type such as the "Town Hall of the Air" have done much to inform folks throughout the nation. The formal education programs sponsored by educational institutions have made progress and a number of such programs have a large following. An increase in these adult education programs following the war seems certain because many schools have applied for the right to construct and operate frequency modulation stations.

It is true that the educational use of the radio has not kept pace with its use for entertainment. However, radio broadcasting is still quite new. It is only ten years since the first national program was presented. Entertainment, being the more popular and the easier to present, has received the most attention during the first decade. It probably will continue to do so, but steady and conscientious effort is being made to develop educational broadcasting programs and techniques. Certainly radio of today is doing much to lay a basis of interest on which the future development of educational broadcasting will depend.

In the field of agriculture, the radio service in Missouri is making a most important contribution. While a considerable part of the agricultural materials going on the air deals with markets, weather, and agricultural announcements, there is a

much larger volume of material of educational character. For instance, twenty Missouri stations carry regular educational programs for farmers, supplied by the College of Agriculture. Approximately one thousand agricultural radio items went out from the College to twenty-seven radio stations in 1944. All of these were sent on request, so that practically all were used. The United States Department of Agriculture, through its various agencies, also, supplies much material to the radio networks, while many radio stations have agricultural specialists on their staffs who bring in material for broadcasting.

The future of radio education for rural people holds great possibilities. Over ninety per cent of the farmers of Missouri had radio sets before the war. Many of these were battery sets which farmers have found it difficult to maintain during the war period. When batteries are again available and when rural electrification spreads, as it probably will following the war, radios should reach practically every farm. It is probable that the radio broadcasting companies will come to appreciate more and more the great value of radio educational programs and that this may become one of the most effective means of adult education for rural people.

Youth Organizations in Relation to Rural Education

As in the case with all youth, Missouri rural boys and girls are on the march. During the present war, large numbers have left the farms and villages to secure more lucrative employment in industrial and urban centers. After the war, many of them will return to their former rural environment, especially if there is a postwar depression.

A critical study at Princeton University of the jobs which this overflow of rural youth secure in industrial and urban centers shows that for the majority no more than an elementary school education is required; one-fourth require high school training; and one-tenth, a college education. But the urban youth, who compete for those jobs, usually have the advantage of being better trained in school than their country cousins. A more thorough general education would help many of these rural youth to improve their situations after they leave the farms and farm villages. This would seem to be one of the real postwar training responsibilities of the secondary schools.



Making Farmers of Tomorrow.

Rural people of Missouri as a class, are quite alarmed about this constant drain of youth from the farms, because they feel that much of the most intelligent rural leadership is being taken from their midst forever. However, Missouri studies show that there still remains much potential leadership in the country comparable in ability to those persons who leave the farms and villages for what they consider enlarged opportunities, mainly in business and the professions.

This intelligent, resident rural leadership, both adult and older youth, is now taking the responsibility for training 20,000 Missouri 4-H Club members who live on farms and in villages. There are approximately 8,000 Vocational Agriculture students, a majority of whom voluntarily belong to local chapters of the Future Farmers of America. These two youth groups supply more than eighty per cent of the students in the Missouri College of Agriculture. The Missouri Farmers' Association sponsors a junior organization known as the Junior Farmers' Association with a membership of about 4,000 farm boys and girls. The Boy Scouts of America have enrolled 3,788 boys in rural scouting. The Missouri Conservation Commission has an enrollment of 9,599 boys and girls in Nature Knights, and related activities, mainly in connection with the public schools. In addition, there are youth groups in the rural towns and villages which are sponsored by churches.

There are approximately 960 rural boys and girls per county in the United States in normal times who are out of school. Most of them are between fourteen and eighteen years of age, and a majority are almost entirely dependent upon voluntary youth activities for their future education as farmers, citizens and community builders.

The local youth organization is a "melting-pot" which readily absorbs the boys and girls into a functioning group from various socio-economic, religious and educational backgrounds. However, lines of cleavage crop out in several sections of rural Missouri. Boys and girls from farms and villages usually do not work together smoothly as a mixed group. In a few instances 4-H clubs have been discontinued because of differences in economic status among members of the group. However, these cases usually have been leadership problems. Then, in a few sections of Missouri boys and girls have been kept out of youth clubs and other youth groups because of local competing

organizations. Cooperative plans are being worked out with these organizations in overlapping situations, including dual memberships, wherever mutually desired. In the end the success of youth in group work will be in proportion to the democracy of the group, including democratic methods of leadership.

The future educational possibilities inherent in the youth organizations of the state are very great. The numbers within the 4-H group, the Junior Farmers, the Future Farmers of America, and the Nature Knights, may be greatly expanded in post-war years. These are all made up of rural or small town youth. All have as their guiding principles those ideals and disciplines which are of particular interest to rural people. The influence of these respective clubs or groups should go a very long way in moulding the lives and thinking of these young people who will be the men and women of tomorrow.

Farmers' Organizations

Farmers' cooperative associations represent a group of organizations which provide educational facilities and programs for farmers. The local cooperative is the agency which provides the meeting hall and calls the meeting. The programs for these meetings may also be developed locally but frequently these are suggested or provided by the larger state or regional associations with which the local unit is affiliated. More and more the local units are becoming affiliated with general farm organizations and provide the local means for disseminating information about the policies and programs of these national groups.

Local cooperative associations, when truly cooperative, provide an important educational medium, because their first concern is service to their members. By supplying only the varieties and qualities of seeds recommended for his community, the local cooperative exchange can be an effective ally of the extension agent and the teacher of vocational agriculture in promoting the use of good seeds. The association can also promote the use of proper fertilizers, feeds, and good farming practices in general.

In the same manner, the local cooperative can make farm marketing programs more effective by developing and promoting the sale of products by market grades and classes. Local

marketing agencies are seldom able to provide capable graders for all the farm products they handle. This makes it necessary for the local agency to consign those products to be marketed by grade to a large wholesale or processing unit which can provide grading service. The local cooperative which is affiliated with a state or regional wholesale and processing cooperative is in a particularly favorable position to make such a quality marketing service available to farmers. In general, a far-sighted, public-spirited business firm, or a cooperative association which is set up to provide service rather than large savings, is a most effective educational influence in the community.

The local cooperatives and their affiliated state and regional organizations, which may include general farm organizations, can at times go beyond the limits of the agricultural colleges with their educational programs. They can bring to their members the viewpoints of farm leaders and others on problems affecting agriculture and the common welfare, which involve legislation and political action. Their members, if properly informed, can be an effective force in bringing about much needed changes in legislation and in administrative policies of public agencies. In this latter respect, the educational program of the cooperative becomes a supplement to that of the public adult agencies. The local cooperative and its affiliated organization can provide farmers with information concerning the advantages of various marketing agencies and the types of political action necessary to assist farmers in obtaining their fair share of the national income.

To summarize, the local cooperative is an effective vehicle for promoting the improvement programs of the public educational agencies, and it can supplement the activities of these agencies by helping farmers to develop action programs for proper legislation and public policy.

Recreation in Rural Missouri

If farming is to be a way of life rather than merely a means of making a living, an adequate recreational program for rural areas must be provided. Recreational activities play an important part in the development of personality and in facilitating the work of rural organizations. Group workers are well aware that frequently the best way to get people to work together is first to get them to play together.

One of the most pronounced trends in rural recreation in the last fifty years has been the shift from informal activities, centering in the home and neighborhood, to urban dominated, commercialized amusements. Consequently, recreation, a most important personality and community-building activity, is moving beyond the influence of parents and local groups who have deep concern for the welfare of their youth. There is a widespread agreement that this is not a desirable condition, so that there is need in rural communities for wholesome, well planned, and organized recreational activities.

The major rural institutions must take responsibility for providing recreation for youth and adults residing in rural areas. The institutions which should be interested in such a program would certainly include the school, the farm organizations, the agricultural extension service, and the church. These groups would need to provide professional leadership and to train lay leaders in group recreational activities such as drama, music, sports, and out-door recreation. A community-wide recreational program should perhaps be a cooperative endeavor of the major agencies within the community. Some localities have found that the consolidated school and community park provide the natural centers for recreational and other community activities. If it is agreed that the recreational aspect of education cannot be overlooked in building a desirable and effective rural life, an adequate recreational program should be a part of the postwar plan for our rural communities.

CHAPTER VI

GENERAL VIEW OF THE RURAL SCHOOLS

THE pattern for the rural school district of today was cut to fit the conditions of rural life prior to the Civil War. As has been indicated, the early settlers found it necessary and convenient to place a school house in walking distance of the children. This was necessary because there was no other convenient mode of travel, since few roads were passable in wet weather by wagon or even by horseback. Also, the school months were usually the wet and cold months of the year. These conditions made it necessary to use the "child-walking-distance" as the measure by which to determine the size of school districts.

Furthermore, experience had shown that on the average one hour's walk by school children fit the home life conditions very nicely. The child living farthest away from school could leave home at eight o'clock in the morning and arrive at school by nine. By leaving school at four o'clock he could arrive home by five, which would give him some time before dark to help with the family chores. These and other conditions established the measure of the maximum size of a school district as the "child-walking-distance per-hour", which resulted in rural districts that were approximately two and one-half to three miles square and remains the general pattern today.

The six to nine sections of land in the school district provided farms and homes for fifteen to twenty-five families. By 1875 the average rural district enrolled almost fifty pupils. Without question this was the best organization for rural schools of that day when all factors are considered.

Regardless of the remarkable progress that has been achieved in many communities in practically every other phase of rural life, the small district rural school remains. Doubtless some of these small schools must remain until the pioneer conditions with respect to transportation have been replaced by all-weather roads that are accessible to the children of school age.



Child-Walking-Distance to School

Rural School Children

One very significant change affecting rural education is that of the number of children of school age. Fifty to seventy-five years ago, as has been indicated, each rural district on the average had approximately fifty children enrolled. However, since the attendance was so irregular the number of children in school any one day was much less. The decline in rural school enumeration, enrollment and average daily attendance in recent years is shown in Table XX.

Table XX**Enumeration, Enrollment and Average Daily Attendance in the Rural Schools**

Year	Enumeration	Enrollment	Average Daily Attendance
1929-30	272,101	191,475	151,388
1930-31	282,692	191,911	161,243
1942-43	249,133	161,338	122,757
Per cent loss .	12	16	24

This loss of twenty-four per cent in rural children in average daily attendance in the twelve-year period shown in Table XX is having marked impact on our rural school problems. As will be shown later many rural schools are finding it necessary to close and transport the children to other schools.

While not shown in Table XX, there has been a decrease in enrollment of approximately 10,000 rural children each year for the last several years. At present the further trend is not predictable.

Rural Eighth Grade Graduates Entering High School

One of the major expressed purposes of the 1931 School Law was to provide more opportunity for rural school boys and girls to attend high school. The increase in percentage of the eighth grade graduates of the rural schools attending high school since the passage of the law is shown in Table XXI.

Table XXI**Number of Rural Eighth Grade Graduates and Per Cent Entering High School**

Year ¹	Number of Graduates	Entering High School	
		Number	Per Cent
1930-31—1931-32	30,923	17,532	56.7
1941-42—1942-43	30,614	22,345	73.0

¹The data for two consecutive years were combined in order to take care of the alternation program.

The gain in the per cent of rural eighth grade graduates entering high school in the eleven year period is rather phenomenal. To appreciate the real significance of the gain one should refer to the preceding Table XX where a loss of twenty-four per cent in average daily attendance during the same period of time is shown. Considering the percentage loss in average daily attendance along with the percentage gain in number of graduates, one realizes the great progress made in the extent to which the rural children have taken advantage of the high school opportunities that have been provided for them.

Transportation of School Children

One of the most significant changes in education in Missouri has been the transportation of school children. While data prior to 1930-31 are not obtainable, some comparative data are given in Table XXII.

Table XXII

Number of Students Transported to School

Year	Resident Elementary and High School Students	Non-resident High School Pupils	Total Number Transported
1930-31	8,209	8,209
1942-43	51,507	42,894	94,401

It will be noted that transportation of school children has had a remarkable growth in this period. In 1942-43 there were 2,346 vehicles used in transporting school children. Not all the children transported to school are shown, but only those on which state money is paid. At this point attention is called to the fact that approximately 43,000 rural high school boys and girls are now being transported with the state contributing part of the cost. That is, the State in 1942-43 helped the local districts in the matter of cost of transportation to the extent of \$2,037,242.

It now seems clear that as time goes along and home-to-school all-weather roads are available to a great majority of the farms there will be fundamental changes in the organiza-

tion of the rural schools. At the present time two factors must be considered with respect to the further development of larger school service areas: one, the desire of the people; and two, the provision of all-weather home-to-school roads. To be sure, these roads should be laid out and developed for other needs of rural people, such as farm-to-market roads, mail routes, etc. But insofar as possible the roads in rural areas should serve all the purposes at one and the same time.

Rural School Teachers

"As is the teacher so is the school", was true when uttered, is true now, and always will be true. Also, it is as true in the one-room rural schools as in the town graded schools. It is known to the profession and to the patrons that quantitative data may not show the real worth of a teacher, but such data have their story to tell.

Some important facts regarding the number of rural teachers and their salaries are presented in Table XXIII. It will be noted that the number of rural teachers has decreased in the thirteen-year period shown in Table XIII. However, from the point of view of many people, including patrons of the rural schools, it is highly significant that very few men teachers are in the rural schools. Furthermore, the loss of approximately fifty per cent of the men teachers in the period under consideration is very significant. Doubtless some of the factors operating to keep men teachers out of the rural schools are pay, permanency and professional opportunity.

Table XXIII

Number of Rural Teachers and Their Annual¹ Salaries

Year	Total Number	Number of Men	Average Annual Salary	Number of Women	Average Annual Salary
1929-30	8,379	1,695	\$661	6,684	\$619
1942-43.	7,796	961	727	6,835	692
Change.	—583	—734	+\$66	+151	+\$73

¹Average income from teaching eight months.

Whether or not the rural teachers are paid more or less than they are worth may be open to question, but there can be no question at the present time that an annual salary of \$700 is a very low level of economic return. It should be noted that as an annual salary it provides an income of only approximately two dollars a day.

Tenure and Experience of Rural Teachers

An examination of the conditions with respect to the tenure and the experience of the rural teachers will help to understand some of the problems of rural education. On the average the tenure (continuous length of time a teacher stays in one school) of the rural teachers is less than two years as shown in Table XXIV.

Table XXIV

Tenure and Experience of Rural Teachers

Year	Tenure in Years ¹	Inexperienced Teachers		Average Number of Years Teaching	Mobility ²	
		Number	Per Cent		Number	Per Cent
1929-30... ..	1.9	2,074	25	2.6	2,575	31
1942-43.....	1.8	1,721	22	5.5	2,917	37

¹Tenure refers to the number of years in same school.

²Experienced teachers who have changed positions.

It will be noted that there has been little change with respect to tenure during the thirteen-year period. Furthermore, approximately one-fourth of the rural teachers are inexperienced and little significant change in this respect has taken place during the period.

Since the average years of experience has doubled in the thirteen-year period, that is, from 2.6 years to 5.5 years, it appears that the experienced teachers are remaining longer in the rural schools. However, under the caption of "Mobility" in Table XXIV it is shown that the experienced teachers are changing positions more in 1942-43 than in 1929-30.

It may be granted that some inexperienced teachers do excellent work their first year and that some experienced teach-

ers do better work in one school than in another, but it is certain that the rural children are subjected to a kaleidoscopic stream of teachers. Undoubtedly, such shifting of teachers, regardless of whether they are good ones or poor ones, does not provide the best educational experience for the pupils. In fact, the rural schools are practice schools for the teachers who later, if they are successful and continue in teaching, obtain positions in the city schools. This is a well-known and lamented fact among the people who are working to provide better educational opportunities for the rural boys and girls.

Qualifications of Rural Teachers

Some further understanding of the situation with regard to the rural teachers may be gained by examining their preparation for their work. The average preparation of the rural teachers beyond high school as expressed in college hours of credit has made a marked gain from 1929-30 to 1942-43 as shown in Table XXV. The gain in preparation has changed from a little less than one year of college preparation to slightly more than two years. However, as is shown in Table XXV, there has been a loss on the average of approximately a half year of college preparation in the last two years. Perhaps much of this recent loss is due to the impact of the war on the teaching profession.

Table XXV

Qualifications of Rural Teachers

Year	Hours of College Credit ¹	Per Cent County Certificates of Total	Per cent of each Grade of County Certificates			
			1st	2nd	3rd	Special
1929-30	22	51	18	20	14	0.7
1942-43	66	59	13	20	25	0.7
1944-45	44	69	13	25	26	5.0

¹The median was used as a measure of central tendency for both periods since only the median could be found for the year 1929-30.

From the legal point of view a county certificate to teach is perfectly respectable, but on the average these certificates represent the lower levels of professional preparation. There has been an increase in the percentage of these among the rural

teachers as shown in Table XXV. It is noted that in 1942-43 approximately fifty-nine per cent of the rural teachers held county certificates, but two years later, 1944-45, the percentage of all rural teachers holding county certificates had risen to sixty-nine.

Training of Teachers for the Rural Areas

The rural schools are handicapped by small teaching units; by low standards of teacher certification; and by inexperienced and temporary teaching staffs, who are poorly paid, poorly housed, and sometimes accorded inferior status and esteem. Some of these limitations can be removed by improved roads and systems of transportations, by the establishment of larger administrative and teaching units; by the district providing suitable housing for the teachers; by the improvement of certification standards, and by equalization of school funds available to each school community.

Coordinate with these changes must come a continuous improvement in the education of teachers. This will involve recruitment and selective techniques; improved curricula; understanding of child growth and development; participation in community and civic activities; and care in placement, induction, and in-service follow-up.

Recruitment of Teachers for Rural Areas

There is an obvious need for a flow of capable young people into teaching in the rural areas. This cannot be expected until teaching is made attractive enough in salary, in social status, and in professional opportunities to make it compete with other vocations and occupational choices in American life which command the attention of intelligent young people.

Young men and women of ability, energy, and professional promise who do enter the teacher education institutions of the state rarely select the rural field. Those who for financial or other reasons cannot finish their teacher preparation often secure employment in the rural schools where standards for teachers are lower. Accordingly the rural schools, in many cases, are used as stepping stones by inexperienced teachers. When they have increased their professional preparation, many seek positions in the urban centers where their education and experience are better recognized and rewarded.

Another group of teachers in the rural field are those who, due to lack of interest in college work or possibly low scholarship, do not complete their teacher education program. Because for this unwillingness of teachers to remain in the rural schools, these teachers accept positions and teach for years in the rural areas.

Communities themselves bear some of the responsibility for this unwillingness of teachers to remain in the rural schools. Statements such as the following are not uncommon: "One is too isolated in a rural school"; "The teacher is not appreciated"; "Cannot get a boarding place"; "Required to board at a certain place where there is little privacy and poor accommodations"; "Must do the janitor work"; and "Must leave the school next year because there is a local girl who wants the position." When these conditions prevail, teachers who have higher salaries in rural schools will oftentimes resign and accept lower salaries in town schools.

Many of the young people who enter teacher education institutions to prepare for teaching are from the farms and small communities. They have lived on a farm and have attended a rural school. They go to college "to better their position in life"; and for some reasons many believe that they will not do this by making preparation to teach in rural schools.

Teacher Welfare

The educational needs of the boys and girls in rural Missouri cannot be served by teachers who are poorly prepared, who are underpaid, who are on temporary appointment, and who have no means of providing for their own old age. Therefore, the state is interested in teacher welfare,—better preparation, adequate salaries, security of tenure, and provision for retirement.

An adequate program of teacher welfare will assist in recruitment of young people for the teaching profession and the retention of many well qualified teachers. A program of teacher welfare is, therefore, suggested as a part of the total program of recruitment of prospective teachers for rural sections.

Teachers should have security in their profession as long as they continue to render efficient service. The continuing contract law for teachers in Missouri is a step in this direction.

When teachers make preparation at the four-year college level and are considered to be in the teaching profession as a life career, the continuing contract law is certainly pointing in the right direction and experience may show that it needs further strengthening for greater security.

It is believed that the recent enactment into law of the teacher retirement system will in time have a marked influence in providing better teachers in all types of schools affected in Missouri.

Effect of Size of School Units

Schools with small enrollments do not provide good situations for the education of children or for effective teaching. Groupings of children of approximately the same age in one grade or in two or three closely related grades create a unit in which cooperation, competition, and inter-related learnings go on advantageously. Children, thus grouped, learn much from one another. Units of optimum size encourage the employment of teachers who have specialized in the subject-matter, child psychology, and teaching methods best adapted to that age-group. School-room equipment and teaching aids adapted to the group can also be provided to a better advantage. Such a school unit, is therefore, necessary to provide sufficient incentive to encourage teachers to prepare for and to work in rural areas.

Preparation of the Rural Teacher

Rural youth are entitled to teaching of a quality equal to that of youth enrolled in city schools. For this reason, the teachers for the rural schools should have the scholarship, the professional preparation, and the personal and social qualities equal to those of the teachers in city schools. Therefore, the content of the curriculum for the preparation of teachers for both areas should be essentially the same. For example, both should have a background of general education in the major areas of knowledge. A teacher of high school algebra or history should have the same knowledge of the subject regardless of whether he is to teach in the urban or the rural schools. Likewise, much of the professional work should be identical. If there are superior methods of teaching reading, spelling, and

arithmetic, they may be used in all schools. Courses in educational psychology which deal with learning and understanding of childhood should be the same.

The teacher education curriculum then includes four areas of learning for all teachers:

1. General education.
2. Professional education.
3. Major field of teaching.
4. Electives to fill out personal needs.

Rural teachers should have sound information about and experience with the economic and social characteristics of rural areas; should be thoroughly familiar with rural philosophy and ways-of-life; should know and be able to work with all rural agencies; and should understand the impacts of rural life upon the growing child. Any variation from the general pattern of teacher education should be for the purpose of emphasis upon these unique phases of rural education.

It is generally agreed that this unique area should occupy about ten to fifteen per cent of the total program. A brief outline of these special areas follows:

1. *Rural Sociology and Economics*

This deals with the community aspects of rural life.

2. *Nature Study and Agriculture*

This deals with the physical environment and the vocational aspects of rural life.

3. *Rural Education*

This deals with the organization and management, course of study, curricular adaptation and methods for rural schools.

4. *Student Teaching*

Observation and apprentice teaching should be done in typical rural schools under adequate supervision.

The State of Missouri maintains five state teachers colleges, the School of Education of the University of Missouri, and Lincoln University in order that teachers may be prepared to teach in the public schools. These institutions are conven-

iently located in various sections of the state. Those responsible for teacher education believe that too many teachers are employed in rural schools before they are prepared to assume the important work of educational leadership of rural children. If adequate support from the State is continued, the colleges can provide the faculty, buildings, equipment, and curricula for preparing teachers to meet the improved standards suggested in this report. These standards will come as soon as the citizens of rural Missouri decide to eliminate the present educational discrimination against their boys and girls.

Curricular Offerings for the Elementary Schools in Rural Areas

The typical rural Missouri school includes grades one to eight. It has an average daily attendance of less than fifteen pupils. In more populous rural areas and in small towns, a grouping of several grades per teacher may be found; whereas in urban schools, pupils are grouped by grades, and each group is taught by a different teacher. Differences in the length of the school term add to the rural teacher's difficulty. Practically all of the Missouri rural schools have an eight-months term, while town and village schools have a minimum of a nine-months term. This reduction in time requires the rural teacher to do the same work in less time. That is, during a period of eight years, which is the scheduled time it takes children to complete the elementary grades, the rural child has lost a month of schooling each year or an equivalent of eight months or a school year in the elementary grades.

The elementary curriculum for both urban and rural schools should represent the basic and enriching experiences which a democratic society has found desirable for all children to have and for which society has assumed responsibility. Changing social needs throughout the years have forced the rural schools to enlarge the curriculum. This has greatly increased the responsibilities of the rural teachers.

For many years the State Department of Education has published elementary courses of study, and has prepared regular state examinations to be administered to the children of the rural schools. This has tended to standardize to some extent the curricular offerings of the rural schools.

Historically, the first major demands upon the schools were to teach the fundamental skills and abilities in arithmetic and in the arts of communication such as reading, oral language, written language, handwriting, spelling and grammar. The mastery of these subjects is as important today as it has ever been. However, as life becomes more complex and human contacts increase, the demands of society become extended to include a curriculum that emphasizes a knowledge of the world of people and of material things. This has brought into the curriculum many other subjects.

In the light of the objectives in Chapter I it is evident that the rural schools have not achieved and with their small enrollment cannot achieve the satisfactory educational program that is necessary for the boys and girls in these schools.

Cost of Education in the Rural Schools

The cost of educating the elementary children in the rural schools has made a slight gain of 5 per cent from 1930-31 to 1942-43 as shown in Table XXVI.

Table XXVI

Cost of Education in the Rural Schools

Year	Total Cost	Enrollment		A. D. A.	
		Number	Cost per Pupil	Number	Cost per Pupil
1930-31	\$8,865,257 ¹	191,911	\$46	161,243	\$55
1942-43	9,339,320	161,838	58	122,757	76
1943-44	9,298,397	150,075	62	112,661	83
Per Cent					
Increase	+				
Decrease	-				
1942-43 over 1930-31.	+5	-16	+26	-24	+38

¹Estimated from 1929-30 data.

Since there has been a sizable decrease in the enrollment in the rural schools, the cost per pupil has increased from \$46.00 to pupil to \$58.00 or an increase of 26 per cent per pupil in the period from 1930-31 to 1942-43. However, the average daily attendance in the rural schools has decreased much more rapidly

than the enrollment. Therefore, the cost per pupil in average daily attendance during the period has increased from \$55.00 per pupil in 1930-31 to \$76.00 per pupil in 1942-43 or an increase of thirty-eight per cent, and the increase continues as shown by the data for 1943-44. This marked increase in cost per pupil in average daily attendance is in sharp contrast with the five per cent increase in total cost. The wide difference has been caused, in the main, by the large decrease in average daily attendance.

Furthermore, there seems to be little, if any, evidence to support the point of view that the marked increased cost per pupil in average daily attendance has been caused by increased educational services. Therefore, it follows that education is becoming much more expensive per pupil merely because the number of pupils per school has decreased. Hence, as will be pointed out later in connection with the discussion of the small rural schools, some reasonable means should be found for increasing the number of children in a teaching situation.

At this juncture it is relevant to point out that the foregoing cost data do not include the total cost of educating rural youth on the elementary and secondary levels. The state alone contributes, in addition to the foregoing cost, approximately four and one-quarter million dollars for tuition and transportation for these youth in the rural areas. Hence, in order to determine the total cost in 1942-43 of educating rural boys and girls, \$4,273,262 should be added to the cost shown in Table XXVI. Thus \$13,612,582 was the total cost of elementary and secondary education for rural boys and girls.

Support of Education in the Rural Schools

The support of education in the rural schools has been one of the current problems facing the people of the state and their representatives and senators in the General Assembly. From the point of view of financial support, there is little doubt that the 1931 School Law was one of the most important contributions in the history of rural education in Missouri.

The trend in the support of rural schools under the 1931 School Law, is shown clearly in Table XXVII. In studying the facts in Table XXVII, it should be kept in mind that the data there show the amount of money that is raised by the different sources, not the amount of money spent. That is, the column

headed "Local" is the amount of money received from "local sources." Since the law requires that all the state's contribution must be spent, it follows that any balance in funds comes from local sources. These facts should be kept in mind when studying rural school costs.

Table XXVII

Amounts of Money Collected for the Support of Rural Schools

Year	Local ¹	State	Total
1930-31	\$6,619,118	\$812,195	\$7,431,313
1942-43	4,871,024	5,378,361	10,249,385
Per cent			
Increase (+)			
Decrease (-)	-26	+562	+38

¹All money collected except the amount contributed by the State.

The local funds raised have decreased twenty-six per cent in the last twelve years, while the state's contribution has increased 562 per cent. The state's participation in the support of local education is in accord with the fundamental principles of the 1931 School Law.

Relative Amount of Money Spent on Rural Schools

The relative amount of money spent on the rural schools, as shown by local funds and state funds, gives a clear picture of the part each source plays in providing for rural schools. Since the passage of the 1931 School Law, the burden of support has shifted from the local sources to state sources as shown in Table XXVIII. The state contributes fifty-eight per cent of the cost, as the cost is usually calculated.

Table XXVIII

Percentage Distribution of Support of Rural Schools

Year	Local	State
1930-31.....	89	11
1942-43.....	42	58

An analysis of the expenditures for rural schools in 1942-43 shows the method used in determining the percentages for each source as shown in Table XXVIII. That is, in Table XXVI, the total expenditures were shown to be \$9,339,320. Then, in Table XXVII, it was shown that the state contributed \$5,378,361. Since the law requires all state money to be spent, the local sources spent only \$3,960,959 of the total amount this source raised. Hence, there was a gain in the balance in the local funds of \$910,065.

Assessed Valuation of Rural Districts

The assessed valuation of a rural school district forms the major basis for the amount of money the people of the local district may contribute to the support of their school. However, it is generally known that there is a great deal of variation in the state in the ratio of the assessed valuation to the true value. Also, that the assessed valuation per district varies widely. Furthermore, it is generally known that there has been a decrease in the total assessed valuation in the state. These and other variations make it difficult to evaluate school problems involving assessed valuation. Nevertheless, the data presented in Table XXIX are the best at hand.

Table XXIX

Assessed Valuation of the Rural Districts

Year	Assessed Valuation	Enrollment		A. D. A.	
		Number	Valuation per Pupil	Number	Valuation per Pupil
1930-31.....	\$1,179,317,759	191,911	\$6,145	161,243	\$7,314
1942-43.....	849,723,680	161,338	5,267	122,757	6,922
Per cent Loss.....	-28	-16	-14	-24	-5

There has been a drop of twenty-eight per cent in the assessed valuation of property in rural districts as a whole, as shown in Table XXIX. The valuation per pupil enrolled has dropped fourteen per cent while the valuation per pupil in average daily attendance has dropped twenty-five per cent, which is almost the same as the drop in total assessed valua-

tion. It will be noted that in 1942-43 the assessed valuation per pupil in average daily attendance was \$6,922. Since there were 7,824 rural districts that year, the average rural school district had an assessed valuation of \$108,605.

Average Tax Levy in Rural Districts

The rate of taxation is some indication of the effort on the part of local people to support their schools. As a measure of effort over wide areas its value is vitiated by one well known fact—that the ratio of assessed value to true value of taxable property varies widely. For example, on the average, assessed values in some parts of Missouri are only one-half of their true value as reported by the 1940 United States Census; whereas, in other parts of the state, the assessed values and the true values are shown as approximately the same. Many other factors operate to make the rate of taxation a questionable measure of effort. However, for whatever value it may possess in connection with a study of the problems of rural education, it is found that in 1929-30 the average of the average tax levies in the several counties in Missouri was fifty-one cents on the hundred dollars' assessed valuation. Whereas, it is found that in 1942-43 the average had dropped to forty-two cents on the hundred dollars' assessed valuation.



The Vanishing Small Rural School.

CHAPTER VII

THE SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

Size of District Related to Mode of Travel

THE "child-walking-distance-per-hour" measure for laying out the boundaries of the rural school districts from Civil War times up to 1900-1910 resulted in approximately 10,000 school districts, only a small number of which were not rural. In this period of the history of education in rural Missouri, the districts were physically small because of the primitive means of transportation (and many are small today for the same reason), and the number of children in each school was generally large, if not too large for efficient teaching.

However, conditions have changed in many sections in Missouri with regard to distance. No longer is distance measured in terms of walking. This is an automobile age and distance is now measured in terms of "automobile-driving-distance-per-hour". The "auto-distance-per-hour" is ten to twenty times that of "walking-distance", depending on the automobile and the roads. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that if rural district boundary lines were laid out today the "auto-distance-per-hour" would be the unit of measure wherever there are all-weather roads. Consequently, the rural districts would generally be at least ten times the size they are today.

Decline in School Population

The decline in school population in the rural areas has brought about the problem of the small rural school as much as any other factor or influence. In the last twelve years the decline in average daily attendance in rural school districts has been twenty-four per cent for the state as a whole, as shown in Table XXX. This decline has brought sharply to the attention of patrons, taxpayers, and legislators the problem of the low average daily attendance schools.

An examination of the details of Table XXX shows a loss in average daily attendance in 103 of the 114 counties. There was a gain in ten counties and one county remained the same,

Also, one notes the wide variation in losses among the several counties, from sixty-one per cent loss in one county down to one per cent loss in another county.

Table XXX

Percentage Change by Counties in Average Daily Attendance in Rural Schools in Missouri From 1931 to 1943¹

¹From applications for state aid in the office of State Department of Education.

Average Loss for the State as a Whole = 24 %

(+) Gain; (-) Loss

County	Gain or loss	County	Gain or loss
Adair..	-46	Howard..	-26
Andrew..	-27	Howell..	- 9
Atchison..	-39	Iron.....	-11
Audrain..	-27	Jackson..	-33
Barry....	- 9	Jasper....	-19
Barton....	-25	Jefferson..	+14
Bates....	-45	Johnson..	-30
Benton....	-48	Knox.....	-39
Bollinger..	-20	Laclede..	-13
Boone.....	-41	Lafayette..	-44
Buchanan..	-31	Lawrence..	-29
Butler....	-17	Lewis.....	-49
Caldwell..	-49	Lincoln..	-39
Callaway..	-12	Linn.....	-50
Camden....	-54	Livingston..	-61
Cape Girardeau..	-20	McDonald ..	- 9
Carroll....	-31	Macon.....	-47
Carter....	+ 9	Madison..	- 6
Cass.....	-33	Maries....	-21
Cedar.....	-37	Marion....	-33
Chariton..	-40	Mercer....	-38
Christian..	-30	Miller....	-27
Clark.....	-35	Mississippi..	+36
Clay.....	+ 3	Moniteau..	-50
Clinton....	-35	Monroe....	-29
Cole.....	-18	Montgomery..	-34
Cooper....	-37	Morgan....	-32
Crawford..	-13	New Madrid..	+25
Dade.....	-35	Newton....	-15
Dallas....	-21	Nodaway..	-34
Davies....	-34	Oregon....	-12
DeKalb....	-44	Osage.....	-49
Dent.....	-27	Ozark.....	-19
Douglas....	-35	Pemiscot..	+17
Dunklin..	+17	Perry.....	-22
Franklin..	-18	Pettis....	-19
Gasconade..	-30	Phelps....	- 1
Gentry....	-39	Pike.....	- 2
Greene....	-21	Platte....	-34
Grundy....	-25	Polk.....	-35
Harrison..	-39	Pulaski....	-40
Henry....	-26	Putnam....	-24
Hickory....	-40	Ralls.....	-27
Holt.....	-37	Randolph..	-31

have become what are known as low average daily attendance schools. These schools are often called "low A.D.A. schools." These are the schools that will be designated the "small" rural schools. The general situation in the state, with respect to these rural schools, is shown in Table XXXI.

Table XXXI

Summary of Low Average Daily Attendance in Rural Schools in Missouri

Year	Total Number of Rural Districts	Districts Below 15 in A. D. A.		Districts Below 10 in A. D. A. ²		Districts Below 5 in A. D. A.	
		Number	Per Cent of Total	Number ¹	Per Cent of Total	Number	Per Cent of Total
1930-31..	7,818	2,803	36	no data	no data	no data	no data
1942-43	7,824	5,149	66	no data	no data	no data	no data
1943-44..	7,868 ³	5,381	68	3,484	44	1,058	13

¹These districts are included in the columns to the left.

²A. D. A.—Means average daily attendance.

³Fifteen of these districts are closed because they have no pupils.

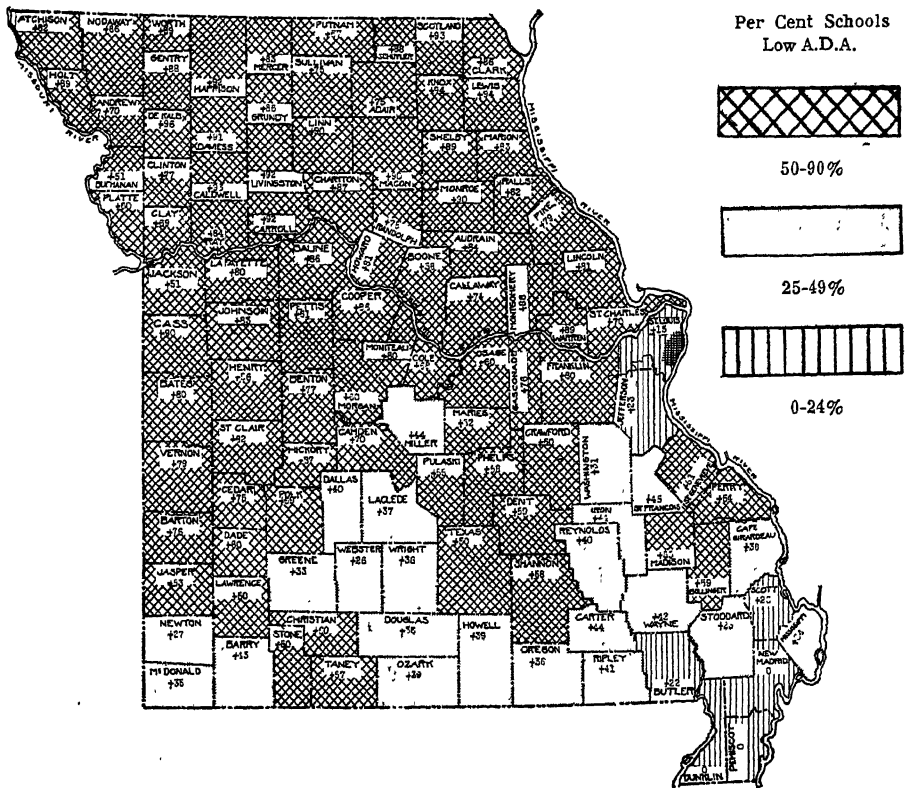
It will be noted that in the period from 1930-31 to 1944-45, the number of rural schools having less than fifteen pupils in average daily attendance has approximately doubled in number. Also, it will be seen that sixty-eight per cent of the rural schools in 1944-45 had less than fifteen children in average daily attendance. Furthermore, the total number of rural districts has remained practically the same, but the percentage that are "low A.D.A." schools has increased very greatly.

The loss in average daily attendance in the rural schools has resulted in forty-four per cent of the districts in the state having less than ten pupils in average daily attendance as shown in Table XXXII. Also, it may be seen that of the 5,381 rural districts having less than fifteen in average daily attendance there are 3,484 that have less than ten pupils in average daily attendance, which is sixty-five per cent of these schools.

Furthermore, the fact that 1,058 rural districts have less than five children in average daily attendance has helped to bring about the rapid growth in transporting the rural grade school children to other schools which will be discussed in later paragraphs.

MAP 4

Percentage of Rural Schools That Are Low A.D.A. Schools in Missouri in 1913.



These small schools have become a problem that is being slowly solved in part by the passage of time and the existing school laws. The patrons of these small schools have become aware of the fact that their children are not receiving the kind of educational experience that is their inherited right in a democracy. The patrons, in greater numbers, are realizing that it is impossible under existing conditions to have a modern rural school where such a small number of pupils are in attendance. The details by counties are shown in Table XXXII.

Table XXXII**Low Average Daily Attendance in the Rural Schools by Counties
in Missouri in 1944-45***

(ADA means average daily attendance)

County	Number of Rural Districts	Number Below 15 in ADA	Number Below 10 in ADA
Adair.....	73	61	36
Andrew.....	67	52	28
Atchison.....	63	50	36
Audrain.....	81	69	39
Barry.....	89	41	20
Barton.....	89	75	50
Bates.....	101	78	50
Benton.....	87	68	51
Bollinger.....	82	49	31
Boone.....	78	50	24
Buchanan.....	55	26	14
Butler.....	61	14	7
Caldwell.....	57	53	42
Callaway.....	98	77	53
Camden.....	50	40	23
Cape Girardeau.....	66	31	18
Carroll.....	108	95	70
Carter.....	26	12	7
Cass.....	92	79	53
Cedar.....	73	60	37
Chariton.....	98	82	64
Christian.....	42	31	20
Clark.....	71	61	49
Clay.....	58	37	23
Clinton.....	49	41	32
Cole.....	41	24	11
Cooper.....	71	60	40
Crawford.....	81	50	35
Dade.....	64	55	37
Dallas.....	55	24	12
Daviess.....	77	70	57
DeKalb.....	73	67	53
Dent.....	72	47	25
Douglas.....	109	46	22
Dunklin.....	38	0	0
Franklin.....	110	65	41
Gasconade.....	60	45	22
Gentry.....	75	63	38
Greene.....	91	32	18
Grundy.....	71	64	43
Harrison.....	92	85	55
Henry.....	92	73	51
Hickory.....	38	35	24
Holt.....	48	42	31
Howard.....	48	40	31

*Taken from July 15, 1944 Application for State Aid filed in the Offices of the State Department of Education.

TABLE XXXII --Continued

County	Number of Rural Districts	Number Below 15 in ADA	Number Below 10 in ADA
Howell...	104	45	24
Iron.....	39	18	13
Jackson..	69	26	9
Jasper....	102	55	24
Jefferson..	63	19	9
Johnson...	93	75	50
Knox.....	70	67	51
Laclede...	83	50	27
Lafayette..	78	61	42
Lawrence ..	86	51	29
Lewis.....	52	50	44
Lincoln...	80	69	51
Linn.....	91	87	64
Livingston..	72	67	47
McDonald..	37	11	3
Macon.....	112	101	74
Madison....	49	26	12
Maries.....	50	22	5
Marion.....	42	33	27
Mercer.....	75	70	52
Miller.....	63	30	14
Mississippi..	38	12	7
Moniteau...	71	60	40
Monroe.....	84	73	51
Montgomery..	72	64	44
Morgan.....	63	48	24
New Madrid....	26	0	0
Newton.....	64	13	6
Nodaway.....	115	102	74
Oregon.....	54	28	17
Osage.....	54	38	20
Ozark.....	79	35	19
Pemiscot....	19	2	0
Perry.....	59	30	18
Pettis.....	74	51	23
Phelps.....	78	52	23
Pike.....	70	58	42
Platte.....	55	29	21
Polk.....	94	68	33
Pulaski....	46	28	19
Putnam.....	76	56	34
Ralls.....	51	46	31
Randolph....	51	42	32
Ray.....	70	57	43
Ripley.....	79	38	23
St. Charles...	49	31	21
St. Clair.....	95	81	53
St. Francois..	38	16	11
Ste. Genevieve...	41	25	14

TABLE XXXII—Continued

County	Number of Rural Districts	Number Below 15 in ADA	Number Below 10 in ADA
St. Louis.	66	7	5
Saline.	101	88	57
Schuyler.	51	49	42
Scotland	60	59	46
Scott.	30	11	7
Shannon	79	55	27
Shelby.	66	66	44
Stoddard	85	14	5
Stone.	39	15	10
Sullivan	102	83	57
Taney.	60	36	26
Texas.	114	52	32
Vernon	107	91	60
Warren.	55	49	41
Washington	51	21	11
Wayne	57	28	15
Webster	67	21	5
Worth.	49	47	32
Wright.	86	36	16
Totals	7,868	5,381	3,484

Transportation of Rural Schools

In order to solve temporarily the problem of the small rural school, many districts in the state have resorted to transporting their children to other rural districts and to the elementary grades in accessible town schools, as shown in Table XXXIII.

Table XXXIII

Summary of Transportation of Pupils from Closed Rural Schools in Missouri

Year	Number of Districts Below 15 in A. D. A.	Number of Districts Transporting	Per Cent Transporting
1942-43	5,149	1,123	22
1943-44	no data	1,405	no data
1944-45	5,381	1,662	31

It should be stated that practically all of the transporting rural schools belong to the class of districts having less than fifteen pupils in average daily attendance. The per cent of

these small districts that transport their pupils to other schools is increasing as indicated in Table XXXIII. Doubtless this acceleration in transporting these small schools is a result in part of the scarcity of teachers, attendant on war conditions.

The details by counties with respect to the transportation of rural school children from the closed schools are shown in Table XXXIV. Here it will be noted that there is a wide variation among the counties with respect to the number of closed rural schools that are transporting their children.

Table XXXIV

Transportation of Closed Rural Schools in Missouri¹

County	1942-43	1943-44	1944-45	Number of Low ADA Schools in 1944-45	Per Cent Low ADA Schools Transporting in 1944-45
Adair.....	3	6	7	61	11
Andrew.....	9	10	11	52	21
Atchison.....	0	0	8	50	16
Audrain.....	13	16	20	69	29
Barry.....	8	9	9	41	22
Barton.....	12	16	17	75	23
Bates.....	17	20	23	78	29
Benton.....	10	15	14	68	21
Bollinger.....	9	8	7	49	14
Boone.....	8	14	19	50	38
Buchanan.....	6	12	10	26	38
Butler.....	1	4	4	14	29
Caldwell.....	18	18	22	53	42
Callaway.....	7	12	18	77	23
Camden.....	14	18	18	40	45
Cape Girardeau.....	6	7	9	31	29
Carroll.....	29	33	40	95	42
Carter.....	4	3	5	12	42
Cass.....	19	20	25	79	32
Cedar.....	2	5	10	60	17
Chariton.....	28	41	46	82	56
Christian.....	11	12	20	31	65
Clark.....	11	12	12	61	20
Clay.....	10	11	13	37	35
Clinton.....	15	16	21	41	51
Cole.....	7	6	6	24	25
Cooper.....	11	20	20	60	33
Crawford.....	16	15	17	50	34
Dade.....	13	17	20	55	36
Dallas.....	7	11	15	24	63

¹Data taken from Part I of the Reports of County Superintendents to the State Department of Education.

TABLE XXXIV—Continued

County	1942-43	1943-44	1944-45	Number of Low ADA Schools in 1944-45	Per Cent Low ADA Schools Transporting in 1944-45
Davless ..	17	19	27	70	39
DeKalb.	22	25	31	67	46
Dent.	7	7	8	47	17
Douglas.	3	10	12	46	26
Dunklin.	0	0	0	0	0
Franklin.	8	16	21	65	32
Gasconade.	8	10	13	45	29
Gentry.	10	0	21	63	33
Greene.	6	10	11	32	34
Grundy.	13	12	13	64	20
Harrison.	13	21	22	85	26
Henry.	13	14	15	73	21
Hickory.	11	13	12	35	34
Holt.	13	16	16	42	38
Howard.	13	14	20	40	50
Howell.	9	12	14	45	31
Iron.	2	3	3	18	17
Jackson.	11	11	13	26	50
Jasper.	12	13	14	55	25
Jefferson.	6	7	8	19	42
Johnson.	21	24	29	75	39
Knox.	23	27	25	67	37
Laclede.	7	6	10	50	20
Lafayette.	9	21	24	61	39
Lawrence.	13	16	17	51	33
Lewis.	22	27	31	50	62
Lincoln.	21	25	35	69	51
Linn.	25	37	41	87	47
Livingston.	21	20	23	67	34
McDonald.	2	3	5	11	45
Macon.	26	27	25	101	25
Madison.	5	4	5	26	19
Maries.	2	4	4	22	18
Marion.	7	9	16	33	48
Mercer.	12	15	24	70	34
Miller.	4	6	6	30	20
Mississippi.	4	5	3	12	25
Moniteau.	18	17	20	60	33
Monroe.	9	18	19	73	26
Montgomery.	17	20	24	64	38
Morgan.	2	4	5	48	10
New Madrid.	0	0	0	0	0
Newton.	13	10	10	13	77
Nodaway.	18	15	19	102	19
Oregon.	6	6	6	28	21
Osage.	8	9	9	38	24
Ozark.	2	4	8	35	23
Pemiscot.	0	0	0	2	0
Perry.	12	16	14	30	47
Pettis.	2	2	5	51	10

TABLE XXXIV—Continued

County	1942-43	1943-44	1944-45	Number of Low ADA Schools in 1944-45	Per Cent Low ADA Schools Transporting in 1944-45
Phelps.	11	14	12	52	23
Pike.	12	14	14	58	24
Platte.	12	14	18	29	62
Polk.	11	17	21	68	31
Pulaski.	6	7	6	28	21
Putnam.	7	7	9	56	16
Ralls.	8	12	16	46	35
Randolph.	9	16	18	42	43
Ray.	10	12	13	57	23
Reynolds.	4	5	8	19	42
Ripley.	13	13	13	38	34
St. Charles.	0	1	12	31	39
St. Clair.	20	22	21	81	26
St. Francois.	6	7	7	16	44
Ste. Genevieve.	4	6	6	25	24
St. Louis.	1	3	2	7	29
Saline.	8	21	22	88	25
Schuyler.	15	17	19	49	39
Scotland.	4	7	8	59	14
Scott.	3	5	4	11	36
Shannon.	12	12	10	55	18
Shelby.	15	19	24	66	36
Stoddard.	1	1	1	14	7
Stone.	3	4	5	15	33
Sullivan.	12	13	21	83	25
Taney.	6	11	13	36	36
Texas.	12	14	19	52	37
Vernon.	15	26	28	91	31
Warren.	13	19	21	49	43
Washington.	3	6	5	21	24
Wayne.	5	2	2	28	7
Webster.	2	3	5	21	24
Worth.	7	9	10	47	21
Wright.	3	9	7	36	19
Totals.	1,123	1,405	1,662	5,381	31

Cost Per Pupil in the Small Rural Schools

The total cost per pupil in average daily attendance in the rural schools in Missouri was \$76.00 in 1942-43 as reported in a preceding table. This amount included teachers salaries, incidental expenses, buildings, interest and sinking fund expenses. Furthermore, it covered all sizes of rural schools. Since the small rural schools have become so numerous and the problems

connected with them have attracted state-wide attention, a special study of the costs in these schools was made.

In order to obtain fairly reliable, representative, and comparable data on costs in these schools, it was necessary to confine the cost data to current expenses which include only teachers salaries and incidental expenses. Also the amount of money that a rural district pays for high school tuition for its high school students has been excluded from the current expenses as accurately as it could be by using the available records. Furthermore, because of the nature of the records and the amount of statistical work involved, a sampling of rural schools was used. That is, nine counties selected from representative areas north of the Missouri River and seven counties similarly representative were chosen from areas south of the Missouri River and the calculations were made for the rural schools in these counties. The significant facts are shown in Table XXXV.

Table XXXV

Current Costs in Rural Schools in Missouri in 1942-43

Number of Pupils in A. D. A.	Number of Rural Schools Studied	Average Number of Pupils in A. D. A.	Cost Per Pupil in A. D. A.		
			Average	Lowest	Highest
Less than 10	217	7	\$100	\$52	\$501
10-15	230	12	79	47	137
Less than 15	447	10	86	47	501
15 or more	248	20	51	29	103
Transported	97	6	68	18	262

A. D. A. means Average Daily Attendance.

Large Costs in the Small Schools

The most significant facts shown in Table XXXV is the large amount of money that it costs to keep the small schools open. In the rural schools that have less than ten pupils in average daily attendance the average annual cost is \$100 per pupil in average daily attendance. For this size of school the lowest annual cost was \$52 per pupil and the highest was \$501 per pupil. In contrast, in the one-room schools having 15 or more pupils the annual cost is \$51 per pupil in average daily attend-

ance or one-half the cost of the former. There is no argument about the thesis that all of the children of all the people must be educated, but it is reasonable to try to find a way by which this education may be given economically. Furthermore, it is reasonably certain that efficient and economical education of rural children in groups of six or seven cannot be accomplished.

Cost of Transported Rural Schools

In considering the cost in small rural schools it is significant in studying the problem to examine the cost of education for the small rural schools that transport their pupils to other schools. Referring again to Table XXXV, it is found that the average cost per pupil in average daily attendance was \$68 in 1942-43. Since these schools have practically the same number of pupils as those schools with less than ten, it seems fair to compare the costs in the two cases. It will be noted that the transporting schools cost one-third less than the small schools of approximately the same size that maintain their own schools.

Some further facts about the closed and transporting small rural schools will be of value in studying the problem. In a preceding table it was shown that in 1944-45 there are 1,662 closed and transporting rural schools. The average assessed valuation of these districts is \$99,000 and the average tax levy is thirty cents on the \$100.

CHAPTER VIII

GENERAL VIEW OF EDUCATION IN DISTRICTS MAINTAINING HIGH SCHOOLS

IN a study of rural education in Missouri one must concern himself not only with the one-or-more-room rural schools, but he must also be concerned with many of the phases of education in the towns and cities. As a matter of fact, except for the large metropolitan centers, Missouri is distinctly a rural state, as has been and will be pointed out directly and indirectly in the discussions in this report.

Furthermore, from the point of view of educational problems one finds that the rural boys and girls must go to town schools for their high school education. In general these high schools are located in small towns. Also, from the points of view of state support, teacher supply, migration of school children, curricular offerings, etc., the town and city schools are affected by the rural school conditions. Consequently, some of the significant facts relating to the town and city schools in Missouri will be presented.

School Population in Towns

The enumeration of children of school age has made a slight drop of one per cent from 1930-31 to 1942-43. During the same period the enrollment in the elementary schools has made a slight gain of 2.0 per cent. However, the enrollment in the high schools (Grades 9 to 12, inclusive) made during the same period, a gain of 21.8 per cent as shown in Table XXXVI.

If one compares the data for 1942-43 with those for 1943-44 he finds a decrease in every item shown in Table XXXVI. The ten per cent loss in enrollment in the high schools and the corresponding seven per cent loss in average daily attendance is probably the result chiefly of the war. Perhaps, when the impact of the war is over the high schools will again increase in enrollment. However, it is highly probable that the foregoing average picture of conditions obscures what is taking place in the high school districts in the small towns. Some of the conditions in these districts will be presented later:

Table XXXVI

Enumeration, Enrollment and Average Daily Attendance in Districts Maintaining High Schools

Year	Enumera- tion	Enrollment		A. D. A.	
		Elementary	High School	Elementary	High School
1930-31.	665,528	337,430	130,965	no data	no data
1942-43	659,102	347,191	159,549	269,867	138,073
1943-44.	649,458	333,438	148,305	268,453	128,225
Per cent change from 1930-31 to 1942-43.	-1	+2.9	+21.8	no data	no data
Per cent change from 1942-43 to 1943-44.	-1.5	-4	-10	-2.4	-7

Comparison of Town and Rural Schools

The enumeration, enrollment and average daily attendance in the rural schools during the period from 1930-31 to 1942-43 suffered marked losses as shown in a preceding section, whereas the town schools sustained a significant gain in high school enrollment. Doubtless this gain was caused chiefly by the increase in non-resident rural high school students. Furthermore, it is reasonably certain that the 1931 School Law was a very important influence in increasing the number of non-resident rural high school students.

Distribution of High Schools

The people of Missouri have made heroic efforts to provide a high school education for their boys and girls. Great sacrifices, public and private, have been made by the people to realize this goal. In order to approach this goal, legislatures, various state-wide civic and professional organizations, boards of education and lay leaders have struggled with the many problems involved. This desire for a high school of some classification within reach of every boy and girl has expressed itself in many districts' establishing them as shown in Table XXXVII.

It will be noted that in 1930-31 there were 976 districts that maintained 1,000 high schools—some districts maintained more than one high school. However, by 1943-44 the number of districts maintaining high schools had decreased to 753 or a de-

Table XXXVII**Number of Districts and Number of High Schools by Classes**

Year	Number of Districts	Classification				Total Number of High Schools
		First	Second	Third	Unclassified	
1930-31	976	654	63	244	39	1,000
1942-43	789	758	9	77	23	867
1943-44	753	741	11	54	26	832

crease of twenty-three per cent. During this same period the number of high schools has decreased approximately seventeen per cent.

However, this loss in the number of districts maintaining high schools may not be what it seems at first thought. In the first place, it has been shown that the total high school enrollment in the state has increased thirteen per cent during the period. But if the data for 1930-31 and 1942-43 are used one finds that the increase in high school enrollment has been approximately twenty-two per cent. Perhaps this period is a better picture of normal times than the period from 1930-31 to 1943-44 because of the effect of the war on high school enrollment.

Some of the factors that have caused the closing of small high schools are the high cost per student, the difficulty in finding competent teachers, the desire of parents for greater educational and social opportunities for their children than can be provided in the small high schools, and the feasibility of efficient transportation of school children since the development of the system of highways in many sections of the state.

Changes in Classification of High Schools

There has been a significant shift in the number of high schools in the different classifications during the period from 1930-31 to 1943-44. While the total number of high schools has decreased 168, or approximately seventeen per cent, the number of first class high schools has increased thirteen per cent. In general, the increase in first class high schools has been brought



Photo by Townsend Godsey, Hollister.

A Rural Consolidated School.

about by the second and third class high schools having met at least the minimum legal and State Department of Education requirements.

It may be relevant to remark that many communities in the state have sacrificed a great deal financially in the way of high taxes in order that their high schools might meet the minimum requirement to become first class. This classification makes it possible for their high school graduates to meet the entrance requirements of the colleges and universities in the state. However, it is common knowledge that in many of the communities, the elementary schools have had to work under severe handicaps in teaching personnel, supplies and equipment.

Furthermore, the minimum legal requirements for classifying high schools were enacted by the legislature in 1903, and no significant changes in the law have been made since that time. When the law was passed there were approximately 290 high schools in the state, classified roughly as follows: first class, 100; second class, 60; and third class, 130. Incidentally, the state law did not provide for "unclassified" high schools, but this term has been adopted by the State Department of Education. It should be noted that there are now 741 of our high schools that meet the standards of 1903 for first class high schools.

The legal standards of classification of high schools that were goals to be attained nearly a half century ago are out of date from the modern point of view concerning the functions of high school education. Not only is the law out of date from the point of view of theory but also from the point of view of practice. For example, a small high school that has only three teachers and offers only the required minimum academic subjects does not prepare the students for life in a complex modern democratic society nearly as well as the large high school that offers, in addition to the required minimum academic subjects, a wide variety of training and experience in vocational fields, health and physical education and the broad fields of art, including music, painting, etc. Hence, it seems to follow that a new classification scheme keyed to modern high school conditions should be devised.

Eighth Grade and High School Graduates

A large percentage of the eighth grade graduates in the town schools are entering high school as shown in Table XXXVIII. It is found that eighty per cent do so at present. However, there has been a decrease in the percentage for the last two years. Perhaps, this is the result of the impact of the war upon the schools. If more recent data were available a still further drop would doubtless be found.

Table XXXVIII
Eighth Grade and High School Graduates in Districts Maintaining
First Class High Schools¹

Year ²	Eighth Grade Graduates			High School Graduates		
	Total Number	Number Entering H. S.	Per Cent Entering H. S.	Total Number	Number Entering College	Per Cent Entering College
1930-31—1931-32...	59,046	51,726	88	41,560	13,828	33
1941-42—1942-43...	66,564	53,017	80	63,107	11,413	18

¹Data were available for only the districts maintaining first class high schools.

²Per cents were calculated on the sums for two consecutive years in order to take care of fluctuations arising from alternation in the rural schools.

A very sharp drop, and a very serious one in the long run, is shown in the per cent of high school graduates entering college. The per cent has been cut approximately in half from what it was ten or twelve years ago. The data for 1943-44, not shown in Table XXXVIII, shows a still further drop of four per cent. From the point of view of the place of higher education in a democracy this trend is serious. After the war there will be an increase, but a wide gap will exist which will take perhaps a generation to close.

Teachers in the Town Schools

In the town elementary and secondary schools there were 17,429 men and women teachers in 1942-43. This is a slight increase over the number in 1929-30 as shown in Table XXXIX. Here it is shown that the college training of the teachers has made a significant gain from 102 college hours to 133 college hours on the average. This means that the average teachers

in the town elementary and secondary schools have had four years of college training. Pressure from high school accrediting agencies has done much to help increase the preparation of the teachers in the high schools. However, boards of education are also insisting on better trained teachers for at least two reasons: (1) such teachers are better teachers according to the judgment of the patrons; and (2) the state distributive fund allows more money for better trained teachers.

Table XXXIX**Training and Experience of Teachers in Districts Maintaining High Schools**

Year	Total Number	Training in College Hours	Experience in Years	Tenure in Years	Per Cent Mobility ¹	Per Cent Inexperienced
1929-30	16,530	102	7.9	3 5	13.8	7.3
1942-43	17,429	133	13.3	4 8	18.8	6.2

¹"Mobility" refers to experienced teachers who are teaching in a new position or the experienced teachers who have changed positions from what they held the preceding year.

Along with the trend in better trained teachers as indicated above, it is found that the years of teaching experience has almost doubled on the average. Also, the teachers remain longer in a given position as indicated by the column headed "Tenure" in Table XXXIX. Further, the per cent of inexperienced teachers in the systems has decreased. On the other hand, it is found that the experienced teachers are moving from one teaching position to another more than in 1929-30 as shown in the column headed "Per Cent Mobility". The practice of changing positions by experienced teachers is a doubtful one for the schools and for the profession as a whole. Twenty-five to fifty years ago the saying among the teachers was: "To obtain promotion and increase in salary one has to change positions". And the foregoing data on mobility of teachers seem to indicate that the practice is becoming more frequent. In general, it may be said that the practice, a joint responsibility of the teachers and the school boards, does not augur well for the profession or for the students. However, the shifting of experienced teachers from one position to another may not be so frequent when the full force of the continuing contract and the teacher retirement law becomes fully operative.

Salaries of Teachers in Town Schools

The average salaries of the teachers in the town schools have increased from 1929-30 to 1942-43 as shown in Table XL. There has been a sixty-eight per cent increase in the general average. The greatest per cent increase has been in the salaries of the women teachers. There is no question but that the trend is in the right direction. It is generally conceded by all persons competent to pass judgment on the question that the good teachers are seriously underpaid for the services they render to society. To compare their salaries with those of other workers may not be in good taste. But without giving details it is safe to say that teachers' salaries in 1942-43 are below the level of what they should be.

Table XL

Average Annual Salaries of Teachers in Districts Maintaining High Schools

Year	Men	Women	General Average
1929-30.	\$1,203	\$807	\$889
1942-43.	1,840	1,393	1,493
Per cent increase.	53	73	68

However, there is a practice in many places with regard to salaries of elementary and of high school teachers in town schools that needs serious consideration by school administrators and school boards. In many communities the high school teachers are paid on the average much more than the elementary school teachers. For the state as a whole the average annual salary of the elementary teacher in the town schools is \$300 less than that of the high school teacher. Similar conditions may be found in many if not a majority of the school districts.

This practice in paying salaries has been produced by many factors, but doubtless high school accreditation has been chiefly responsible. Teachers with specified qualifications have been required before a high school would be approved as first class—the goal of all high schools in order that their graduates could enter colleges and universities unconditionally. This is a laud-

able goal, but in attaining it many small school systems have had to hire less qualified teachers, hence less expensive ones, for the elementary grades.

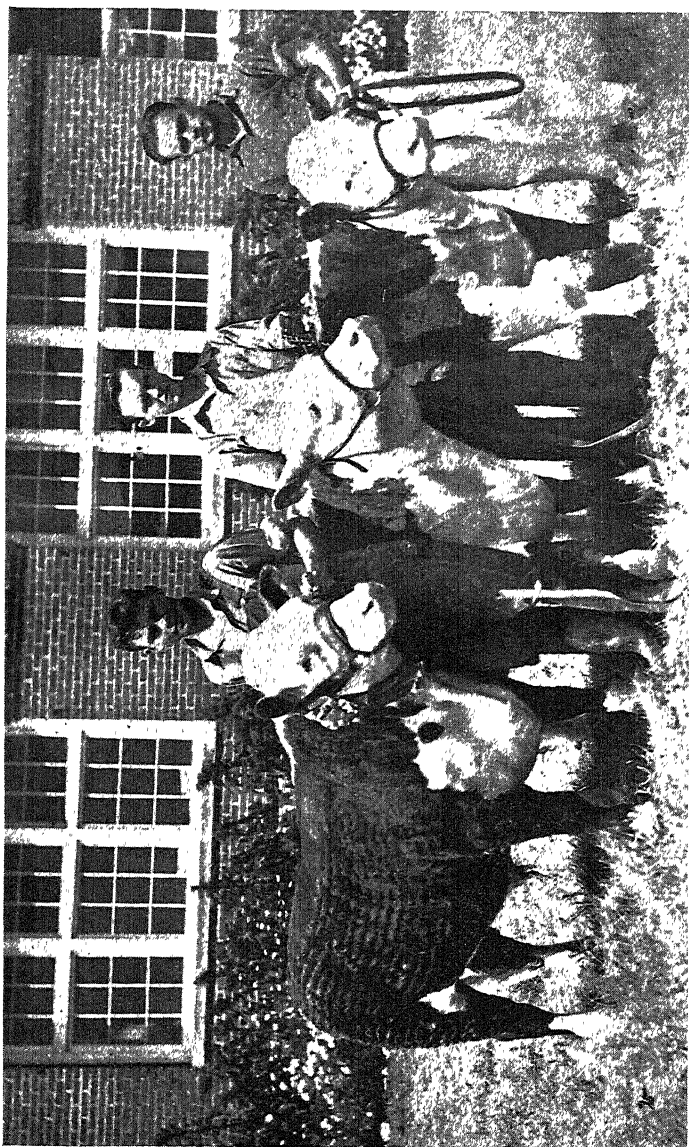
Also, there is the belief in uninformed quarters that almost any mature person can teach the grade children very satisfactorily. However, informed persons know that it takes as much training, intelligence, skill, tact and hard work to do a good or excellent job of teaching the children in the elementary grades as in any other area of teaching.

Furthermore, the practice of paying the elementary teacher less salary is furthered more or less directly by the state law. In the 1931 School Law the basic guarantees are \$750 per elementary teaching unit and \$1,000 per high school teaching unit. Since this is looked upon as teachers salaries it establishes a kind of legal sanction to paying high school teachers more than elementary teachers.

However, a number of administrators and boards of education in Missouri have adopted and applied the principle of a single salary schedule for all the teachers in their schools. Equally prepared, equally experienced, equally competent teachers with equal duties and responsibilities should receive equal pay.

Furthermore, from the point of view of work and responsibilities the average elementary teacher in the town school in Missouri in 1942-43 had charge of thirty-six pupils, whereas the average high school teacher had only twenty students. Also, this questionable practice is sanctioned by the 1931 School Law since a teaching unit in the elementary schools is based on thirty to thirty-two pupils, whereas only twenty to twenty-four students are required for a teaching unit in the high schools. The lack of application of the principle of a real single salary schedule causes more bickering, jealousy and unrest among the teachers in the town schools than any other shortcoming in educational practices.

Boards of education, school administrators and teachers of professional courses in education should adopt the principle of a real single salary schedule. Furthermore, the school laws should be revised to aid the adoption of the single salary schedule.



Beef Production Project in Vocational Agriculture.

Vocational Education

In all the districts maintaining high schools the traditional college preparatory courses were offered throughout the period under consideration. But along with these courses a new type of courses designed to prepare youth for life's future work began to be demanded by school patrons.

In 1917 Missouri was the first state in the Union to take advantage of the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Law, which provided for vocational education on the secondary level. Since that date there has been a phenomenal development in providing vocational training in agriculture, home economics and industrial education for the students in Missouri high schools. It is recognized by our educational leaders that such type of education is essential for the training of young people to take their rightful place in a democratic society. Much has been done in Missouri in this respect and much remains to be done as will be shown in the following discussion of vocational agriculture, vocational home economics and industrial education.

Vocational Agriculture

In 1929 there were only 129 vocational agriculture departments in Missouri high schools, but in 1941, there were 218 schools offering this course as a regular part of their high school curriculum. Due to the war and the acute teacher shortage, their number has decreased until today only 180 schools are able to maintain departments. There has always been a large number of high schools on the waiting list and just as soon as funds and teachers are available, no doubt there will be a great expansion in the number of departments.

The enrollment of boys in vocational agriculture in 1929 was 4,050. The peak enrollment was reached in 1941 with 9,433 students, but the decrease in high school enrollment brought about by the war has affected vocational agriculture enrollment until today there are only 7,837 students in these departments.

In 1942 there were 712 first-class high schools in Missouri. Only twenty-five per cent of these schools had vocational agriculture departments. It is significant that in 1942 there were 338 high schools with an enrollment of fewer than 100 pupils and that only 4.5 per cent of these schools were able to main-

tain vocational agriculture departments. It is significant that vocational agriculture reaches only about one-half the non-urban first-class high school districts with enrollments of over 100; whereas, it reaches only 4.5 of the first-class high school districts with enrollments below 100. The following interesting data show the farm boys reached by Vocational Agriculture:

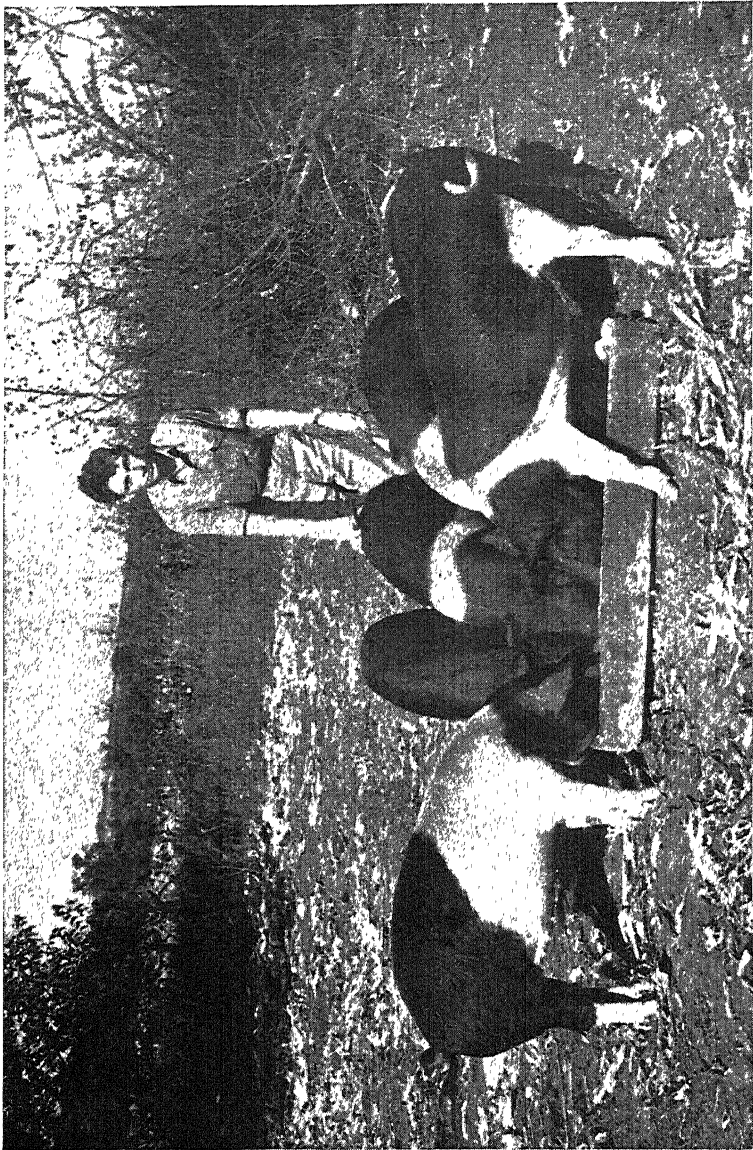
1. Number of boys of high school age on farms of three acres or more (1940)	50,503
2. Number of above cited boys attending school	33,476
3. Per cent Item 2 is of Item 1	66.2
4. Per cent of urban boys of high school age attending school	80.9
5. Number of non-resident, transported boys	19,596
6. Per cent of non-resident, transported boys enrolled in Vocational Agriculture	42.5

It may be concluded from these data that Vocational Agriculture is not reaching as large a percentage of the farm boys of Missouri as it should.

In addition to serving the needs of high school boys one of the important functions of vocational agriculture teachers is that of adult education. In 1943, there were 4,734 adult farmers who were reached through evening schools. In the same year 27,000 adult farmers were enrolled in the war training program. These adult programs have made a very substantial contribution to the war effort and in addition have contributed much to the enrichment of rural life.

Some important conclusions regarding Vocational Agriculture are as follows:

1. Farm boys who study Vocational Agriculture become more successful farmers than do boys in the same communities who do not study Vocational Agriculture.
2. More farm boys who study Vocational Agriculture in high schools become farmers than do farm boys who do *not* study Vocational Agriculture.
3. The average farm boy in Vocational Agriculture earned \$165.70 in 1942-43 from projects carried on in connection with Vocational Agriculture. These earnings enabled many boys to stay in school who would have otherwise dropped out.



Pork Production Project in Vocational Agriculture.

The following recommendations are submitted:

1. The number of Vocational Agriculture departments should be increased at least 100 per cent in order to reach most of the farm boys of Missouri.
2. Some way to reach the farm boys in first class high schools with enrollments below 100 should be provided.
3. More State and/or Federal funds will be needed in order to reach all of the farm boys of Missouri who desire to study Vocational Agriculture.

Vocational Home Economics

Since 1919, Vocational Home Economics classes have been available to all rural girls enrolled in Missouri high schools in which the program is a part of the high school curriculum.

In 1942-43 Vocational Home Economics departments were located in ninety-seven of the 114 counties. Of a total of 712 first-class high schools (white), 28.5 per cent or 203 high schools offered Vocational Home Economics. Seventy-one and five-tenths per cent do not have the program. Schools with enrollments over 100 have the largest number of Vocational Home Economics departments. There are only sixteen departments of Vocational Home Economics in 338 high schools with enrollments less than one hundred. There are 187 departments in high schools with enrollments of more than one hundred.

Sixteen and five-tenths per cent of the 61,085 girls, exclusive of St. Louis and Kansas City, enrolled in Missouri high schools are taking the vocational home economics course. Eighty-three and five-tenths per cent are not enrolled.

Since 1933, the number of Vocational Home Economics departments in the state has increased from 90 to 213 (in white and Negro schools). The total enrollment has increased from 3,179 to 10,360. The average enrollment per department has increased from thirty-five to forty-nine.

The fundamental aim of the instruction in Vocational Home Economics is to fit individuals—youth and adults—to play their part in achieving the social, mental and physical well-being of the families of which they are now members.

Problems of feeding and clothing a family, providing a place to live, caring for the sick, acquiring socially desirable

attitudes and ideals of personal, home and community life, securing vocational guidance, and meeting vocational needs constitute the various aspects of the program.

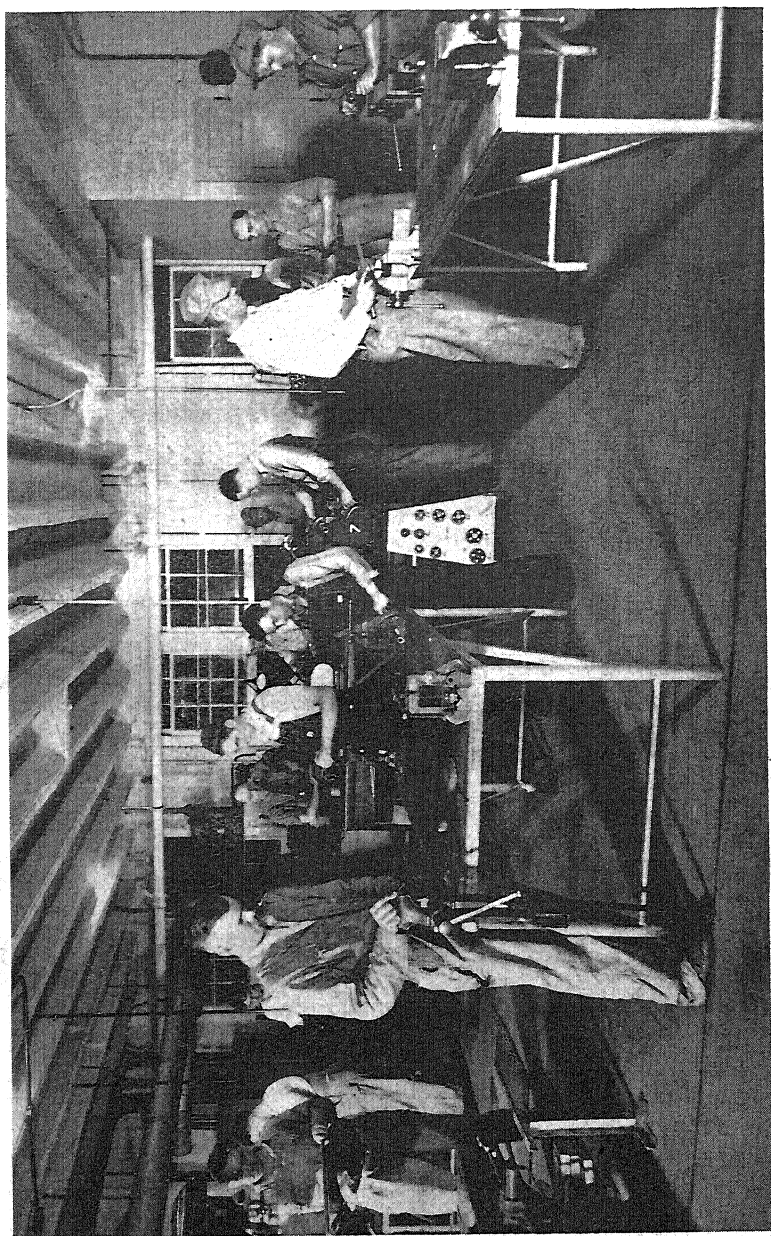
The report shows that there is a definite need for a much greater opportunity for a study of Vocational Home Economics in Missouri schools.

Industrial Education

Since the passage of the Smith-Hughes Law in 1917, Trade and Industrial Education has had a steady growth in Missouri and has become an integral part of the school curriculum in many of the cities in the State. It has become increasingly evident to both the schoolman and the layman that it is the responsibility of the public schools to provide a well rounded educational program in order that individuals and the State may attain economic stability and security.

In spite of the growth of Trade and Industrial Education, much remains to be done in Missouri in order to provide for all its residents an opportunity to fit into an industrial life and to reach the highest efficiency in their chosen industrial occupation. At the present time all Trade and Industrial Education programs in the State are to be found in cities having a population of one thousand or over. Exclusive of Kansas City and St. Louis, the combined total population of these cities having Trade and Industrial Education courses is 530,000, but the total population of all cities of this size in the State is 1,063,000. Thus, there is a coverage of about fifty per cent of the population in these cities.

In comparing the different Trade and Industrial programs in this population group it is found that there are thirty-six cities with a total population of 468,000 offering Diversified Occupations, or a coverage of forty-four per cent. Day trade classes are established in twenty-one cities with a total population of 289,500, or a coverage of twenty-seven per cent. The Evening Trade Extension classes are operating in thirty cities with a total population of 388,500, or an average of thirty-six per cent. The Part-time Trade Preparatory courses are offered in thirteen cities having a total population of 268,500, or a twenty-five per cent coverage.



Industrial Education Class.

In Missouri there are approximately 1,386,500 people who live in cities under 1,000 in population and in rural areas. There has been a steady shift from rural areas to cities and from agricultural pursuit to industrial occupations. More specifically, agricultural workers have declined from fifty-four per cent in 1870 to seventeen per cent in 1940, while workers in manufacturing and construction have increased from twenty-one per cent in 1870 to twenty-four per cent in 1940. There has also been an increase in trade and transportation workers from twenty-three per cent in 1870 to forty-five per cent in 1940. It would seem that because of this shift of workers from agriculture to industry, that this group should have an opportunity to receive industrial training.

If the population of cities of the above group and the 1,000 to 75,000 group were combined there would be an aggregate population of 2,450,000. Since there are no Trade and Industrial Education classes offered in cities under 1,000 in population the coverage percentages for the different types of Trade and Industrial Education programs would be as follows: Diversified Occupations, nineteen per cent; Day Trade, twelve per cent; Evening Trade Extension, sixteen per cent; and Part-time Trade Preparatory, ten per cent.

The figures in the above two population groups do not include the two largest cities, St. Louis and Kansas City. Neither of these two cities have a Diversified Occupations program but do have the three other programs. With a combined population of approximately 1,300,000 when added to the two other population groups, it is observed that the total population of Missouri is about 3,750,000 and that the Diversified Occupations program gives about thirteen per cent coverage for the State as a whole, the Day Trade forty-two per cent, the Evening Trade Extension forty-five per cent and the Part-time Trade Preparatory forty-one per cent.

It becomes quite evident from the above-cited data that only a small percentage of the citizens of Missouri have an opportunity to receive Trade and Industrial training.

There are very few localities in Missouri which have a sufficient need for enough new workers to justify the organization of specialized trade courses. The cost of equipment and maintenance is too great as compared to the small number of people

to be trained. The area school seems to be the best answer to the problem of providing trade training for all the people in the State.

Although phenomenal progress has been made in developing a program of vocational education for the high schools of Missouri, it is evident from the preceding information that it is impossible to provide vocational education opportunities in the high schools that enroll fewer than one hundred pupils because the cost is so great and the number of children not sufficient to provide this type of educational program. Therefore, it follows that some new plan of organization must be developed in order to offer vocational training in its several departments to the tens of thousands of Missouri boys and girls who are denied these opportunities.

Cost of Education in Districts Maintaining High Schools in Missouri

The total amount of money spent by districts maintaining high schools has increased slightly during the period from 1929-30 to 1942-43 as shown in Table XLI. However, the amount spent per pupil in average daily attendance in the elementary and secondary schools of the state has increased from \$113 per pupil in 1929-30 to \$119 per pupil in 1942-43. An examination of the data in Table XLI will show that the increase in cost per pupil has been the result of two factors: (1) the slight increase in total amount spent, and (2) the appreciable decrease in average daily attendance.

Table XLI

Amounts Spent for Education in Districts Maintaining High Schools in Missouri

Year	Total Amount Spent	Number of Children in Average Daily Attendance	Spent per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance
1929-30.....	\$48,119,850	425,029	\$113
1942-43.....	48,637,084	407,939	119

Relative Cost of Elementary and Secondary Education in High School Districts

The relative cost of elementary and of secondary education in districts maintaining high schools is difficult to determine. A number of factors operate to complicate the problem: such as, some teachers work in both types of schools in a given system, the grades and the high school are in the same building, the administrators teach as well as carry on their other duties, the local records are not adequately kept, etc.

However, a very careful study of costs was made for 297 representative and widely distributed school systems in the state exclusive of the metropolitan cities. It was found best to confine the cost data to expenditures from the teacher, incidental, and textbook funds and certain other small amounts that were definitely current expenses. Therefore, the cost will be in terms of current expenses as usually considered in school accounting and budgeting.

The average annual current cost per pupil in average daily attendance is \$106, whereas in the elementary grades it is \$63 as shown in Table XLII. That is, the amount of current expense per student in high school is approximately one and one-half times that per pupil in the elementary schools.

Table XLII

**Annual Current Expenses for Elementary and Secondary Education per Pupil
in Average Daily Attendance in 1942-43**

Type of Education	Lowest	Average	Highest
Elementary..	\$31	\$63	\$140
Secondary.....	64	106	358

There is wide variation among the schools in the amount spent per pupil both in the elementary grades and in the high school. The highest in the elementary grades is four times the lowest. The highest in the high schools is almost six times the lowest. Certainly \$358 for current expenses per student in average daily attendance in high school is very difficult to justify, and it should be stated that this was due chiefly to the very small number of students. This question will be discussed further in another connection.

Support of Education in Districts Maintaining High Schools

The support of education in districts maintaining high schools is derived from three general sources: (1) local; (2) State; and (3) Federal. This is a fairly well established practice and has strong foundation in tradition and in modern theory of school support. The general principle is accepted in our democracy, but specialists in the field may differ as to the relative amounts to be contributed by each source and as to the purposes for which each may be contributed.

Part of the money to finance the schools is derived from local taxation on the assessed valuation of the property within the boundaries of school districts. There are many problems connected with the assessing of property, but regardless of them, the basis for local support is the assessed value of property. In the districts maintaining high schools it is found that the total assessed value has decreased thirteen per cent in the period from 1929-30 to 1942-43 as shown in Table XLIII. Also, the average daily attendance has decreased, but the decrease is only 4.5 per cent.

Table XLIII

Assessed Valuation Per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance in Districts Maintaining High Schools

Year	Assessed Valuation	Average Daily Attendance	Assessed Value Per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance
1929-30	\$3,047,747,628	425,029	\$7,171
1942-43	2,652,890,295	407,939	6,503
Per cent loss.	13	4.5	9.3

It will, also, be noted that the assessed valuation per child in average daily attendance has decreased 9.3 per cent in the period under consideration. The significance of this condition lies in the fact that there is less money from local sources, if the rate of taxation remains the same, to maintain the schools. The assessed valuation per child in average daily attendance is one of the most convenient measures now readily available to determine the ability to support schools. Hence, on this basis the districts maintaining high schools are less able to support their schools in 1942-43 than they were in 1929-30.

Average Total Tax Levies in Districts Maintaining High Schools

One of the traditional measures of the willingness of the people in a school district to support education has been the rate of taxation they vote on their property. As a measure of willingness or effort, the local rate of taxation for school purposes has many recognized limitations. However, it is one of the most easily obtained objective measures and most readily understood by all persons. Hence, facts regarding it will be presented in the following paragraph.

There has been an increase in the tax rate from 1929-30 to 1942-43 in each class of high school district except the second class ones as shown in Table XLIV. In the latter, the rate has remained practically the same. In view of the fact that the old constitution limited the levy to \$1.00 for teachers and incidentals, with certain limitations on the levy for other purposes, it seems that the voters in the districts maintaining first class high schools have been exerting practically all possible efforts to provide twelve years of education for their children.

Table XLIV**Average Total Tax Levies in Districts Maintaining High Schools**

Year	Classification of High School Districts			
	First	Second	Third	Unclassified
1929-30	\$1.24 ¹	\$0.94	\$0.82	\$0.70
1942-43	1.31	0.93	0.86	0.78
Cents change	+0.07	-0.01	+0.04	+0.08

¹This means \$1.24 on the \$100 assessed valuation.

However, one of the reasons the tax levies are relatively high in the districts maintaining high schools is the small assessed valuation per district. The point is well illustrated by data for 1942-43 as shown in Table XLV. Here it is shown that 348 of the 712 districts having high schools had an assessed valuation of less than \$500,000. Hence, the maximum levy of \$1.00 would produce less than \$5,000 of local funds for these purposes.

Furthermore, the typical first class high school district in 1942-43 had approximately 115 students in average daily at-

tendance in the high school and approximately 190 pupils in the grades. The average cost in the high school for teachers and incidentals was \$106 per student in average daily attendance in the high school and for the same items \$63 per pupil in average daily attendance in the elementary grades. Hence, approximately \$25,000 was required annually for teachers and incidental expenses for the typical district maintaining a first class high school. That is, at least \$20,000 must have come from other sources such as the state distributive school fund.

Table XLV

Distribution of Assessed Valuation of Districts Maintaining First Class High Schools 1942-43

Assessed Valuation	Number of Districts
\$5,000,000 and more.	34
2,500,000-4,999,999.	32
1,000,000-2,499,999.	103
500,000-999,999.	195
Less than 500,000	348
Total.	712

Expenditures for Education in Districts Maintaining High Schools

The money spent on education in the districts maintaining high schools is derived from three sources usually designated, local, State and Federal. There is some confusion in the use of the term, "local" in considering the sources of support of schools. However, in this report it will be used to designate all money derived from whatever source except from the state distributive funds, federal funds and county foreign insurance tax money. The latter is usually designated "Free Textbook Fund." From this textbook fund in 1942-43 the rural schools received \$451,412 on their enumeration of children of school age and the districts maintaining high schools received \$1,645,249, as shown in Table XLVI.

The total amount of money spent on the education of children in districts maintaining high schools has remained practically the same during the period from 1929-30 to 1942-43, as shown in Table XLVII. However, the amount of money spent from local funds has decreased twenty-two per cent and to offset this decrease the state funds have increased 221 per cent.

Table XLVI**Free Textbook Fund Derived From Foreign Insurance Tax**

Year	Enumeration		Amount Distributed to		Total
	Rural	High School Districts	Rural	High School Districts	
1929-30	272,101	656,921	\$361,815	\$873,528	\$1,235,343
1942-43.	249,133	659,102	451,412	1,194,249	1,645,661

Table XLVII**Local, State and Federal Expenditures¹ for Education in Districts Maintaining High Schools**

Year	Local ²	State	Federal	Total
1929-30	\$43,554,690	\$4,324,512	\$240,648	\$48,119,850
1942-43	34,151,015	13,885,660	600,409	48,637,084

¹All balances, which exist legally only in the local funds, have been eliminated in order to obtain the actual expenditures.

²Because of the uncertainty as to which category the Free Textbook Fund belongs, it has been eliminated as indicated in the preceding discussion

As will be noted the decrease in the amount of local funds spent has been approximately matched by the increase in the amount of state funds spent, which makes the total amount spent remain practically constant for the thirteen-year period under consideration. It should be remarked that balances on hand have not been used in the preceding discussion.

The per cent of the total expenditures derived from local, state and federal sources shows that significant changes have taken place during the period from 1929-30 to 1942-43. As the per cent contributed by local funds decreased from 90.5 to 70.2, the per cent contributed by the State increased from 9.0 to 28.6 as shown in Table XLVIII. Furthermore, regardless of one's point of view concerning federal participation in the support of local education, the percentage from this source is relatively very small. Here it may be appropriate to point out that the provisions in the 1931 School Law relative to the State co-operating with the local units in financing their schools have produced substantial amounts. In fact many communities had long since reached the legal limits of local tax levies for helping

maintain their schools. It has been rumored that many extra legal practices had been resorted to by a number of communities in order that their schools might continue to be open nine months in the year. Some persons have estimated that the foregoing rumored practices obtain in at least fifty per cent of the districts maintaining high schools in Missouri.

Table XLVIII

Per Cent of Expenditures from Local, State and Federal Sources in Districts Maintaining High Schools

Year	Local	State	Federal	Total
1929-30	90 5	9 0	0 5	100
1942-43	70 2	28 6	1 2	100

So widespread was the practice of contraverting the law that an amendment to the old constitution was adopted which gave the schools of St. Louis County the privilege of lifting the ceiling on the rate of taxation for school purposes. Then followed the adoption of similar provisions in the new constitution. This makes it possible for a two-thirds majority of the qualified voters in a district to levy whatever rate of taxation they desire for school purposes. However, certain constitutional limitations to the foregoing statement, perhaps, do not need discussion at this time.

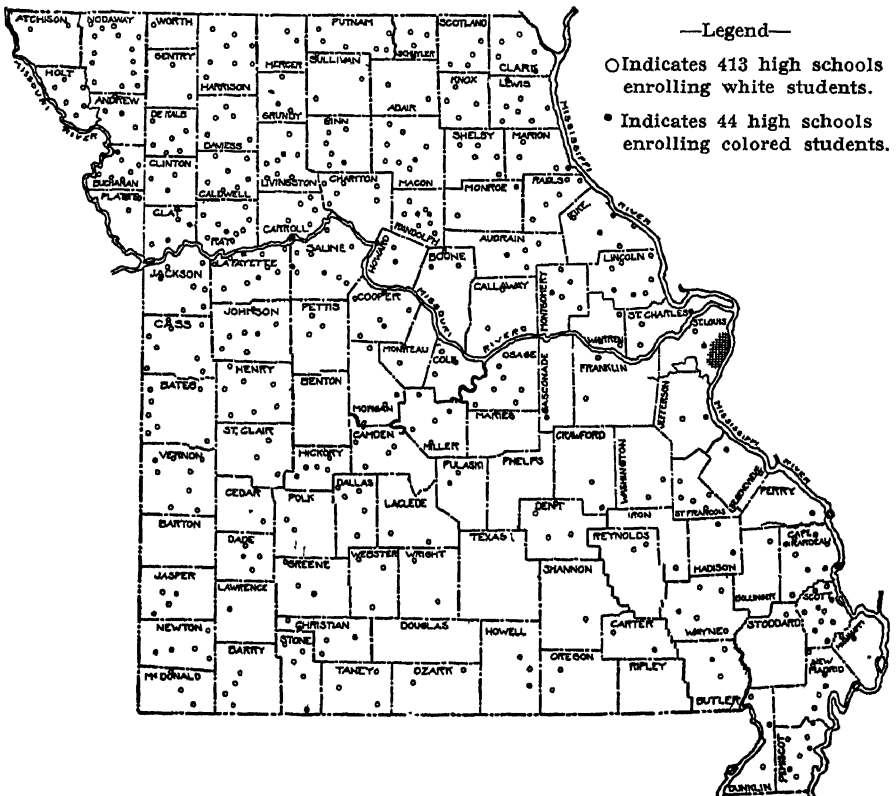
CHAPTER IX

SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

ONE of the most important problems facing education in Missouri is that presented by the small high schools; that is, those enrolling less than 100 students. Of the approximately 810 high schools of all classes, there are 457 of them that enrolled less than 100 students during the current school year, 1944-45. Of this number of high schools, 413 were for white students and forty-four for colored students. These high schools are scattered over the state as shown in the accompanying Map.

MAP 5

Location of High Schools with Less Than 100 Students Enrolled in 1944-45.



Number of Children

In the districts having less than 100 pupils in the high school there are 42,487 elementary school pupils of whom 5,292 are non-resident as shown in Table XLIX. That is, only about 12.5 per cent of the elementary pupils in these schools are from the rural districts. However, it should be kept in mind that these schools are essentially rural since they are all located in the small towns and villages.

Table XLIX

Enrollments and Number of Teachers in Districts Having High Schools with Less Than 100 Students¹

School	Enrollment ²			Number of Teachers ²		
	White	Colored	Total	White	Colored	Total
Elementary:						
Resident.....	32,752	4,443	37,195
Non-resident. ...	5,169	123	5,292
Totals.....	37,921	4,566	42,487	1,397	156	1,553
Secondary:						
Resident.....	11,593	1,012	12,605
Non-resident.....	9,580	478	10,058
Totals.....	21,173	1,490	22,663	1,441	112	1,553
Grand totals...	59,094	6,056	65,150	2,838	268	3,106

¹There are 413 high schools for white students and forty-four for colored students having less than 100 students enrolled in 1944-45.-

²Data compiled from the 1944-45 High School Directory.

Still further evidence that these schools are distinctly rural in character is shown by the fact that of the 22,623 high school students enrolled, 10,058 are non-resident students from the rural school districts. That is, almost half of the high school students in these small high schools are non-resident students. Since there are approximately 40,000 non-resident pupils in the state, it follows that about one-fourth of them are attending these small high schools. The implications of this fact for rural boys and girls will become clearer when the educational offerings of these schools is presented.

The Number of Teachers

In these districts maintaining small high schools there are 3,106 teachers as shown in Table XLIX. It so happens that there are 1,553 teachers in the elementary grades and the same number in the high schools. Of the total number of teachers, 2,838 are white and 268 are colored. An examination of the teacher-pupil ratio or teacher-load will show how small the high school teacher-pupil ratio is in these schools. In the white high schools there are only fifteen students for each teacher, while in the high schools for the colored children there are only thirteen students for each teacher. Another way of looking at the size of these high schools is to note that on the average there are between three and four teachers in the high schools for white students and between two and three teachers in the high schools for colored students.

It is reasonable to state that, in general, the teachers in these small high schools are not as well prepared and receive less salary than the teachers in the schools having a larger enrollment in the high schools. In many ways these small high schools are the "proving grounds" or apprenticeship schools for the teachers in the larger school systems. That is, as soon as a teacher or administrator establishes some professional reputation in the smaller systems, he is called to a larger system where the opportunities for professional contribution to the communities are greater and the salary is larger. This continual shifting of the better teacher personnel into the larger systems leaves the beginning teachers and the poorer ones in the small school systems. All of which works seriously to the disadvantage of the children in these districts and to the rural non-resident children who attend these schools.

Cost of Education in the Districts Maintaining Small High Schools

A detailed study was made of the cost of education in districts maintaining high schools for the year 1942-43. At the time the study was made these were the latest data available. However, it is believed that practically the same conditions prevail now.

In making the study it was found best to limit the cost to current expenditures which included expenditures for teachers and incidentals and textbooks. Also, the schools were

grouped according to average daily attendance (resident plus non-resident) of students in the high schools for that year. Data were obtained from 297 districts maintaining high schools, representatively distributed as to geographical area, and as to size of high school average daily attendance. Perhaps, it is needless to say that the care and labor was great and that extreme care was exercised in handling the data.

Cost in Elementary Schools

The current expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance in the elementary schools of the districts maintaining small high schools (those less than 100 in A. D. A. in this case) was greater than in the districts maintaining larger high schools except in one instance as shown in Table L. Here it is shown that for the three smallest high school groups, those with less than 100 high school students in average daily attendance, the annual cost per pupil in average daily attendance in the corresponding elementary schools was \$65, \$74, and \$65. It may, also, be noted that the range of costs is from \$31 per pupil to \$140 per pupil. The general average based on the costs in all the classes of districts included in the study is \$63 per pupil in average daily attendance in the elementary schools.

Table L

Current Expenditures¹ Per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance² for Elementary Education in Districts Maintaining High Schools in 1942-43

Classification and Size of High School in Average Daily Attendance	Average Daily Attendance of Elementary Pupils ¹			Annual Cost per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance		
	Lowest	Average	Highest	Lowest	Average	Highest
Second, third and unclassified ..	13	54	182	\$37	\$65	\$140
First class, less than 50.	22	62	178	44	74	117
50-99.	31	101	389	31	65	115
100-199.	49	217	887	40	58	92
200-299.	182	370	738	39	59	77
300-499.	253	533	757	43	61	87
500-999.	997	1,498	2,009	51	67	75
General.	12	189	2,009	\$31	\$63	\$140

¹Includes expenditures for only teachers, incidentals and textbooks.

²Average daily attendance of resident and non-resident pupils combined.

Cost in High Schools

A study of the current expenditures per student in average daily attendance in the high schools as shown in Table LI leads inevitably to the conclusion that the small high schools are relatively very expensive. In the lowest classification of high schools the average cost is \$142 annually per student in average daily attendance. In this same class of high schools the range in annual costs is from \$71 to \$358 per student in average daily attendance. To say the least, the latter cost is certainly out of line with the averages in all classifications.

Table LI

**Current Expenditures¹ Per Student in Average Daily Attendance² for
Secondary Education in Missouri**

Classification and Size of High School in Average Daily Attendance	Average Daily Attendance of High School Pupils			Annual Cost per Student in Average Daily Attendance ¹		
	Lowest	Average	Highest	Lowest	Average	Highest
Second, third and unclassified....	3	12	27	\$71	\$142	\$358
First class, less than 50.....	10	37	49	71	131	358
50- 99.....	50	70	99	68	113	262
100-199.....	100	136	198	64	101	147
200-299.....	206	237	289	69	101	141
300-499.....	303	350	475	81	102	126
500-999.....	534	718	932	86	105	128
General.....	3	114	932	64	106	358

¹Includes expenditures for only teachers, incidentals and textbooks.

²Average daily attendance of resident and non-resident students combined.

The cost makes only a slight drop in the average in first class high schools having less than fifty students in average daily attendance from the cost in the lowest classification. The average cost seems to level off among the high schools with over 100 students in average daily attendance. In these schools the average annual cost is slightly more than \$100 per student in average daily attendance and the ranges are somewhat the same.

Insofar as these data are representative one may say that the typical high school in Missouri has an average daily attendance of 115 students at a cost of \$106 per student.

Support of Education in Districts Maintaining Small High Schools

The major portion of the money to pay the cost of education in the districts maintaining small high schools is derived from two general sources: (1) a local tax levy on the assessed valuation of the property in the district; and (2) funds provided by the state. The major part of the local funds available are dependent on the local assessed valuation and on the local tax levy on the \$100 assessed valuation of the property in the district.

The total assessed value of the property in these 413 districts in 1944-45 was \$185,342,682. The average assessed valuation and the ranges are shown in Table LII. Here, it is seen that the range in assessed valuation per district is from \$37,771 to \$4,511,815. While the average assessed valuation is small and the maximum legal tax levy will not produce a large fund, the striking fact is the inequality among the districts in assessed valuations. The district with the largest assessed valuation has one hundred and more times as much as the smallest. One can very readily see how much the variation in support from local taxes would be available if the same rate of levy were used in the two extreme districts. For example, \$1.00 levy on the \$100 assessed valuation in the wealthiest district would produce \$45,118; whereas in the poorest district it would produce only \$378.

Table LII

Assessed Valuation and Tax Levy in Districts Maintaining Small High Schools in Missouri in 1944-45

Measure	Assessed Valuation	Total Levy on \$100 Assessed Valuation
Lowest.....	\$37,771	\$0.35
Average.....	448,795	1.17
Highest.....	4,511,815	2.45

Total assessed valuation in 1944-45 is \$185,342,682.

The average tax levy in the districts maintaining small high schools is \$1.17 on the \$100 assessed valuation. This rate is somewhat below the state average for districts maintaining

first class high schools. However, the striking fact is the wide range in tax levies from \$0.35 to \$2.45 on the \$100 assessed valuation. The latter is more than seven times the former. Insofar as tax levy is a measure of effort the taxpayers in one district are making seven times the effort of the taxpayers in the other district.

As indicated before the two major sources of school support for the districts maintaining small high schools are local funds and state funds. The total amount of money spent by the 413 districts under consideration was \$5,971,123 as shown in Table LIII. Here it is observed that the State contributes 56.2 per cent of the cost and the local sources contribute 43.8 per cent.

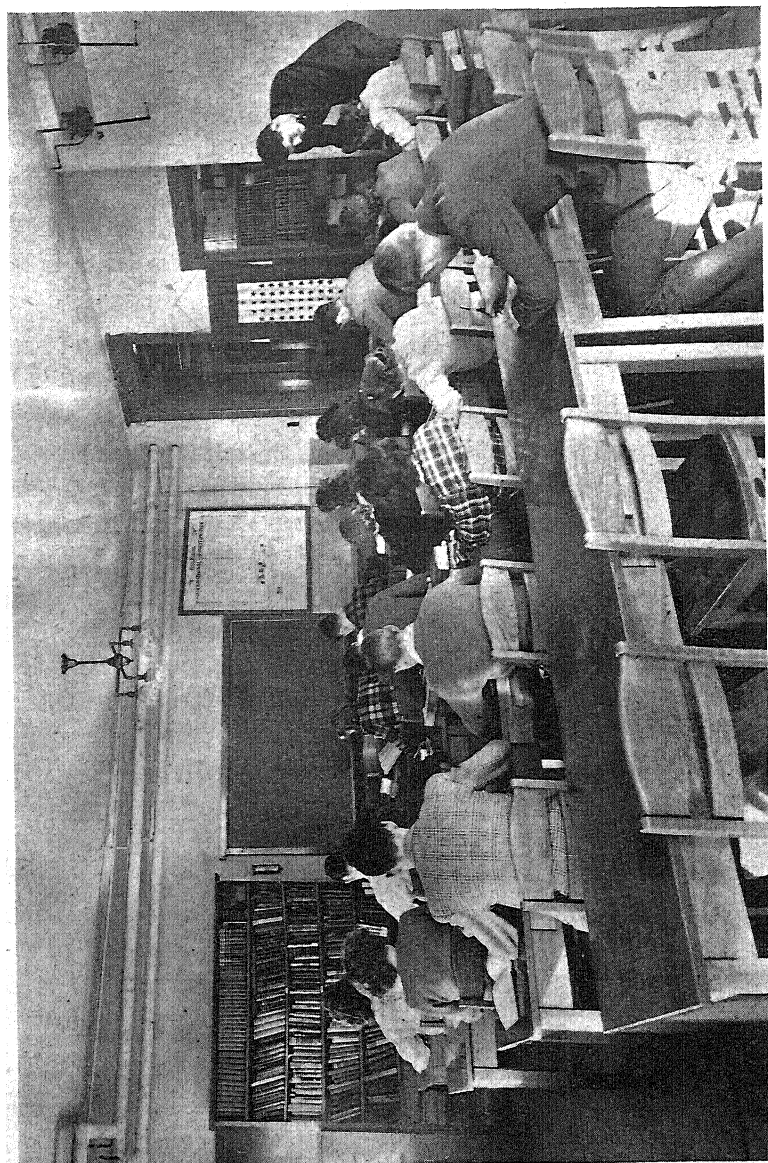
Table LIII

Sources of Money Expended by Districts Maintaining Small High Schools in Missouri in 1943-44

Source of Funds	Amount	Per Cent of Total
State	\$3,357,777	56.2
Local ¹	2,613,346	43.8
Totals.	\$5,971,123	100.0

¹The amount of Local Fund was obtained by subtracting the amount of the State Fund from the total expenses of the 413 districts. Hence, the Local Fund is derived from local taxation, interest on county and township money, etc.

No one competent to pass judgment on the issues involved would deny a high school education to any children in Missouri who could profit by the same. In other words, all the children in Missouri must be kept in the elementary and the high school as long as they can profit by this experience. That is, within reasonable limits, the education of children through high school is the first consideration, and not the cost involved. However, if the first goal can be attained and the cost reduced, a valuable contribution will be made. The development of highways and transportation facilities in the last twenty-five years, and the desire of parents for a modern high school education have focused the attention of taxpayers and school patrons on the question of which small high schools are "indispensable" and which are "dispensable."



A High School Library.

A careful study was made of the distance over all-weather roads that these 413 small schools were from schools offering a much better high school program. It was found that they averaged twelve miles away. Further, nineteen of these schools were less than five miles away, 137 were less than ten miles away and only 110 were fifteen or more miles away from a better high school.

The relatively excessive cost of educating children in the small high schools, the short distances over all-weather roads that many of these small high schools are from larger modern high schools, the very narrow educational opportunities in the small high schools, and many other deficiencies inherent in them, are being generally recognized by the taxpayers and patrons.

Curricular Offerings in Missouri High Schools

The problem of the small rural high school and its curricular offerings is as serious as the problem of the small rural elementary school. While many Missouri communities have established excellent high schools, other communities have not yet developed a satisfactory educational program on the high school level. In these communities the educational facilities and opportunities available are inadequate to meet the needs of the high school boys and girls. Since Missouri has 413 high schools for white students that have an enrollment of less than 100 pupils, it is evident an adequate curricular offering is almost impossible, except in very rare instances.

The fundamental purposes of the secondary schools of the state of Missouri are to be expressed in terms of the expected or desired experiences that these institutions may make possible for young people coming under their influence.

The following purposes which the secondary schools in Missouri should attempt to serve were agreed upon by the various committees:

1. To attempt to develop in pupils those types of likenesses that are necessary for proper social integration.
2. To help young people to become intelligent consumers of goods and the works of man.
3. To promote effective participation in a progressive democratic culture.

4. To assist the individual in finding his interests and capacities and to direct these into those channels in which they can be of maximum use.
5. To help individuals develop their special abilities to the limits of the facilities for such development that the local school can offer.
6. To assist some pupils to prepare for work in higher educational institutions, while at the same time assisting a larger number of pupils to prepare for entering directly some occupation or vocation.

The size of the school determines to a very great extent the curricular offerings that are possible. A careful study of the curricular offerings of Missouri high schools is briefly summarized. The typical small high school of less than fifty pupils offers a minimum program, which is too often a college preparatory curriculum and does not meet the practical needs of most rural boys and girls. The average number of units offered in these small schools, including physical education, is $21\frac{1}{4}$ units, only four units more than is required for graduation. The typical program consists of the following:

LANGUAGE ARTS English 3 units	SOCIAL STUDIES Citizenship World History American History Geography American Problems	MATHEMATICS General Mathematics Algebra Plane Geometry
SCIENCE General Science Biology.....	PRACTICAL ARTS Typewriting Shorthand Bookkeeping General Business General Agriculture	PHYSICAL EDUCATION (one unit) FINE ARTS Literature

It is only by alternating many of these subjects that as broad a program as that outlined above may be offered. It is evident that practically no vocational training except in commercial subjects can be offered, and little or no training in the fine arts except an appreciation course in literature which is too often taught as a regular English class. The classes in these schools have an average enrollment in each class of approximately fifteen pupils.

Contrasted with the typical small schools are the seventy Missouri high schools with an average daily attendance of 200 to 299 pupils. In addition to the curricular offerings of the small schools, the following additional courses are offered: foreign language two units, advanced algebra and trigonometry, physics, typewriting II, Vocational Home Economics three units, Vocational Agriculture four units, music appreciation, band, glee clubs and mixed chorus. The typical school in this group is offering $33\frac{1}{4}$ units of work and over one-third of the schools in this group offer $36\frac{3}{4}$ units of work. These schools enroll on an average twenty or more students per class, except in the more advanced and specialized subjects. In many of the subjects more than one section is taught which provides for the more homogeneous grouping of the students.

The contrast in the curricular offerings of the typical small school with those of a larger enrollment is startling when one compares what the students receive and the extra cost of maintaining these schools. The small school is costing \$30 per pupil more to operate, and in 1943-44 there were 170 first-class high schools in the State with fewer than fifty students, and in addition seventy-five that were classified as second, third and unclassified making a total of 245 with less than fifty students in average daily attendance. The schools with an enrollment of 300 to 399 students were studied and the findings show that these schools are able to offer a broader program, and classes of even more desirable size still at a per pupil cost of \$101. Just what is the optimum size of high school for most Missouri communities has not been determined, but it is evident that the typical small high school is not meeting the needs of the rural youth of Missouri.

CHAPTER X

SOME SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC FACTORS RELATED TO RURAL NEGRO EDUCATION AND WELFARE

THE purpose of this chapter is to present some significant social and economic factors related to the education and welfare of the Negro population in Missouri. The factors selected for presentation appear to have especial pertinency because of their particular bearing upon education. Since more than two-thirds of the Missouri Negro farm operators reside in Southeast Missouri, data relevant to this section will receive major emphasis. An over-all picture of the Missouri rural farm Negro may be gained by examining some high lights from a recent extensive study made by Freeman.

Missouri has a total population of 3,784,664 people, 6.5 per cent of which are Negroes and 2.7 per cent of which are rural Negroes. The ratio of the Negro population to the total population is highest in Southeast Missouri where the ratio is one to nine. There are 252,410 white farm operators in Missouri as contrasted with 3,690 non-white ones of which 3,686 are Negro. While Negroes operated 174,152 acres of farm land or an average of 47.2 acres per farm, whites operated 34,564,930 acres or an average of 136.9 acres. The total value of farm land and buildings of Negro farm operators in 1940 was \$6,850,287, averaging \$1,858 per farm. During this same year there were 1,473 non-white sharecroppers operating farms in Southeast Missouri, the largest group of non-whites of the tenure class in the State. The greatest number of croppers in Southeast Missouri was found in Mississippi County where 712, or nearly two-thirds of the total, were non-white. More than one-third of the non-white farm operators lived on unimproved dirt roads. If location of farmsteads in relation to electrical facilities, telephones and good roads are to be taken as standards, the non-white farm operator lived under less than mediocre circumstances.

The Nature of Family Living Among Rural Farm Negroes of Southeast Missouri

As a means of discovering more detailed information concerning the quality of family living among rural farm Negroes

in Southeast Missouri, Freeman recently made a socio-economic survey of ninety-six Negro rural farm families in Butler, Cape Girardeau, Mississippi, New Madrid, Pemiscot and Scott counties. Summaries of data relevant to each aspect of the survey are presented.

Family Structure

Forty-seven owners, twenty-five renters and twenty-four share-croppers were included in the sampling of farm operators in the survey. In this total of ninety-six farm families were 357 children, an average of 4.04 children per family. There were 202 children of school age, 107 of whom were boys and ninety-five were girls. Twelve boys and fifteen girls of school age were not attending school. Data concerning the educational background of the parents of school age children indicate that as a rule the mothers had received more formal training than the fathers. In general the upper limit of this training for the mothers was the sixth grade; whereas in the case of the fathers it was the fourth grade. The data further revealed that there were ninety fathers and eighty-six mothers who live at home with their families. Vocational activities of the ninety-six families were restricted primarily to the varied phases of agriculture; although in a limited number of cases, family members also engaged in such pursuits as preaching, teaching and carpentry.

Farms and Farmsteads

The ninety-six Negro farm families in Southeast Missouri included in the survey operated a total of 5,905 acres of land. There were forty-seven farm owners, who operated 3,337 acres. There were twenty-five farm renters working 2,260 acres. There were twenty-four families who sharecropped 308 acres.

Of the total acreage, 4,579 were in cultivation at the time the survey was made. 2,560 acres were in cotton, indicative of the fact that Southeast Missouri is primarily an area devoted to cotton culture. However, there were 1,109 acres being utilized for the production of corn; while 616 acres were in hay and only 168 acres in legumes. The median acres farmed by the forty-seven farm owners was 49.1; that of the twenty-five renters was 40.6; and that of the twenty-four sharecroppers was 14.5. The data show that the sharecroppers had the fewest acres in food crops

and that they were the poorest fed. Owners operated farms as large as 225 acres and as small as seven acres. In the case of the renters the extremes as to size of farms operated were 690 acres and seventeen acres, respectively. The extremes for sharecropper were twenty-two and two acres, respectively.

The majority of the families had a bountiful supply of clean and safe water located near their homes, but there were some who secured their water from questionable sources, such as a brook, a branch, or an open spring.

The typical Negro farm family lived in a four-room, unpainted house furnished with cotton mattresses. The family had an average of little more than four chairs and one and one-half rocking chairs. Thirty-eight of the ninety-six families used boxes for chairs.

Livestock Production and Managerial Practices

Livestock is not emphasized by the Negroes of Southeast Missouri in the same sense as is cotton. The little livestock that is raised is primarily for home consumption. Of the livestock produced, poultry and poultry products receive the greatest emphasis. Pork production, milk and milk products were a close second. The sharecropper shows the greatest insufficiency in the production of livestock of all classes. Beef cattle production is certainly the exception rather than the rule among the ninety-six farm families surveyed.

Some income was derived by the operator groups from the sale of livestock. The greatest amount of this income was derived from the sale of poultry and poultry products. However, there were too few farm families engaged in stock production for sale, and in these limited cases, the amount of selling was too little. This condition of affairs prevails not only because the agriculture of the Southeast area has been based chiefly upon a pattern of cotton and grain culture, but also because strains of grasses and clover are difficult to secure on sandy lands.

Management of Gardens, Orchards, and their Products

The survey data reveal that eighty-eight of the ninety-six farm operators were engaged in gardening activities. The most troublesome problem which the families faced in this phase

of agriculture was insect control. Commercially, it is not customary for these families to use vegetables as a money making crop; for only eleven reported such income and this income in all cases was less than \$100. Only three families reported that their income from garden production ranged from \$75 to \$99. So far as vegetable farming for home consumption is concerned, the sharecropper is the most poorly fed. Of the fifteen farm operators who failed to can any vegetables whatsoever, ten were sharecroppers.

Fruit production is not a commercially significant enterprise among the rural families of Southeast Missouri; for this section of the state is not a fruit growing area. However, it is possible to grow fruit here, since the data revealed that 620 fruit trees are grown among the families being studied. Furthermore, the data indicated that unadapted varieties were being grown; therefore, it is obvious that under conditions or proper varietal selection certain fruits will grow. Hence, the problem is worthy of consideration by those concerned with the agricultural needs of this group. Land adaptation for fruit growing was the most significant fruit problem reported by the farm families being studied.

Social Group Activities and Self-Improvement

The Negro as reflected in the data is not very well organized to carry on cooperative and large group efforts. To be sure, he is making some effort at cooperative living, since twenty-seven of the ninety-six families had some family member serving in some type of cooperative group effort. For example, eleven belonged to a burial society, eleven to the Christian Era Land Society, and five to the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. Twenty-seven families believed that there is no way in which neighbors can cooperate; the remainder thought that there might be cooperation through the following agencies: buying and selling cooperatives, cooperative land buying, road improvement, better health clinics, and organizations for better schools. Twenty-five families expressed the belief that the church, school and lodge would cooperate with them in no way. Thirty-two families expressed the conviction that the church, school and lodge could serve as centers for evening schools, community recreation, Parent-Teacher As-

sociation meetings and for any other form of cooperative effort for community betterment.

Fortunately, some of the families participating in the survey did belong to a few useful organizations that make for educational, social and economic advancement. Thirty-two fathers were members of vocational agriculture schools; while forty-two fathers belonged to a church. Thirty-eight mothers belonged to a church; ten were members of a lodge; four were students in a vocational agricultural evening school; and eight were members of homemakers clubs. Twenty-eight boys and twenty-three girls held membership in 4-H Clubs; and fourteen boys and ten girls were church members.

Opportunities for self improvement through wholesome leisure time activities were greatly restricted. Family members engaged to a very limited degree in the reading of books, bulletins, magazines and newspapers. The few periodicals that were read dealt chiefly with agricultural matters. Few forms of organized recreation were available. Hobbies were limited both in scope and quality. Fishing was the favorite recreational activity of the majority of adults. There were, however, a few public supported agencies which rendered professional aid such as the Vocational Agricultural Service, the Farm Security Administration, the County Agricultural Extension Service, the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, and (to a very limited degree) the 4-H Club.

The Health of the Rural Farm Negro of Southeast Missouri

An analysis of recent health studies reported by Lively and Lionberger revealed that the Negro rural dweller of Southeast Missouri has a large number of very acute health problems. Most alarming of these problems are those associated with malnutrition and secondary anemia. Lively reports a study made in 1942 which revealed the detailed scope of this problem. According to Lively, blood tests for anemia which show less than eighty per cent hemoglobin indicate definite secondary anemia. Tests which reveal less than seventy per cent hemoglobin indicate a condition in which the individual so affected feels tired and lacks energy. Secondary anemia is a condition arising from malnutrition and indicates specifically a lack of iron in the diet, arising either from an insufficient amount of food, or

an insufficient amount of the mineral-giving foods such as green vegetables, eggs and milk. Hence in secondary anemia one finds a condition that is definitely remedial in nature, the usual prescription being a proper diet. Lively's study reveals specifically that:

...more than three in five of the 992 Negroes examined fell below 80 per cent. The whites (examined) had a definitely smaller percentage under 60 per cent and under 70 per cent than the Negroes. On the other hand, whites placed two and a third times as many as the Negroes at 90 per cent or above.

A second study made by Lively of male farm tenants and laborers of Southeast Missouri revealed that in addition to malnutrition and secondary anemia, there are a number of other diseases and health defects which persist among Negro men to a greater degree than among white males.

A similar study of female farm tenants and laborers in Southeast Missouri revealed that in addition to malnutrition and secondary anemia, there are a number of other diseases and defects which persist among Negro women to a much larger degree than among the whites.

RURAL EDUCATION AMONG NEGROES OF MISSOURI

Distribution of Negro Rural Schools

The educational needs of Negro rural inhabitants of Southeast Missouri are served primarily by fifty-two schools in Butler, Stoddard, Pemiscot, Mississippi and New Madrid counties.

As would be expected, there is a close relationship between the location of these schools and the centers of the Negro rural population. For example, these schools tend to cluster in Southeast Missouri where, as has been indicated, more than two-thirds of the Negro farm operators of the State reside. More specifically, these schools are to be found in the greatest number in Mississippi County, where the Federal census report for 1940 indicated that the rural Negro farm population approximated twenty-eight per cent of the total county population.

Pupil and Teacher Personnel of the Negro Rural Schools in Southeast Missouri

Tabulation of data with respect to the pupil and teacher personnel of forty-three Negro rural schools in Southeast Missouri disclosed some very interesting facts. Examples of these findings are as follows: The range of pupil enrollment is ten to 166. The median enrollment is forty-one. Twenty-nine schools employ one teacher. Eleven schools employ two teachers; while two schools, enrolling 166 and 113 pupils, employ three teachers. There are seventeen one-teacher schools with an enrollment exceeding thirty pupils each. There are eight one-teacher schools with an enrollment exceeding forty pupils. There are seven one-teacher schools with an enrollment exceeding the median enrollment (41) for all schools. The range for the mean annual salaries paid teachers in these schools is \$300 to \$1,125. The average annual salary for these schools was \$720.

Vocational Education in the Negro Schools in Missouri

The data presented in this study suggest the need for an extensive program of vocational education for the rural Negroes of Missouri. At present this vocational program is very limited in scope and operation. For example, there are only two departments of Vocational Agriculture to serve the needs of the entire Negro rural population of the state. These departments are located at Charleston and New Madrid in Southeast Missouri. The vocational home economics needs of the Negroes of the state are served in ten schools:

Cape Girardeau	Lexington
Caruthersville	New Madrid
Charleston	Poplar Bluff
Columbia	St. Charles
Hayti	South Kinloch Park

The ten high schools offering Vocational Home Economics are located for the most part in central and southeast Missouri. Nine of the high schools are consolidated and the students are provided transportation facilities. Some of the students travel seventy miles daily.

Proposals for a More Complete Educational Program for Missouri Rural Negroes

Data indicate that the rural Negro's problem is primarily an economic one with its related social activities. Also that any attempt to solve this problem by means of education must be through a program in harmony with the activity (usually farming) where the Negro lives.

Most rural Negro youth receive instructions in schools with fewer than three teachers, the majority of which are noted for the scarcity of facilities for giving complete public education on the elementary and secondary levels. Another difficulty in equalizing opportunity and providing adequate educational facilities, including teaching personnel, is the local or single district school board type of control which is generally autonomous within the confines of the district. A more centralized area of educational administration and control, such as the county unit, would perhaps alleviate many of the inadequacies.

The elimination of the one-room school and the creation of larger units whose minimum size would be the three-teacher type, served by adequate transportation facilities, is a proposal worth considering.

Negro youth should be guaranteed a four year high school training. Each high school should provide a department of Vocational Agriculture and a department of Vocational Home Economics integrated with the general high school curriculum and supported in part by federal vocational funds. There should be larger school service areas as a means of adequately providing and maintaining physical plants; and, in order to provide a more integrated training. This plan includes adequate salaries for a sufficient number of satisfactorily trained teachers—that is to say, teachers paid on the basis of training and experience. The item of transportation is also a factor not to be neglected. Such a consolidation should include all grades through the twelfth. A larger school service area, capable of providing more comprehensive and complete community services and of forming a satisfying rural community center, could thus be provided.

Perhaps the state should bear a greater percentage of the cost of rural education for the sake of larger and more effec-

tive schools and for the advantages inherent in an equalized, statewide educational program. An alternative would be the developing of more equalized state financial support inversely proportional to the ability of a community or center to support adequately a first class program of rural education. The poorer the areas, the more funds which would accrue from the coffers of the State.

CHAPTER XI

SCHOOL SERVICE AREAS

IN THE pioneer days the local school service area was co-terminus with the boundary lines of the local district. As has been indicated before this meant limits of the town, village or city and the 2½ by 3 miles of the rural district. If a pupil's home were in a given district, he was required by law to attend the school in that district. However, as time went on high schools developed very rapidly throughout the state. The boys and girls not living in districts maintaining high schools found it necessary to cross district lines to obtain a high school education. As the movement spread, the school service area of the local district maintaining high schools outgrew their legal district boundaries. Furthermore, as transportation developed, many of the local districts were extending fifteen to twenty-five miles beyond their legal district boundary limits to offer high school services. That is, a school service area far beyond the district boundary lines became established.

These new school service areas encompassed not only the high school students but also in time the elementary school pupils in the rural areas. The significance of the movement in connection with rural schools becomes apparent when it is recalled that in 1943-44 there were 1,123 rural schools closed and transporting the children to some other school, whereas in 1944-45 there were 1,622 rural schools closed and transporting their pupils to some other school. Thus, by a slow process the "outworn shell" of the old district boundary lines are disappearing and new school service areas are taking form, for both elementary and secondary education in Missouri.

Development of Transportation

The growth of school service areas is dependent in part on the development of transportation facilities for school children. Furthermore, efficient transportation is dependent on the development of good, all-weather roads. The road situation in Missouri has been discussed in a preceding chapter and attention will be turned to a brief story of the development of transportation.

Transportation of children to school during the nineteenth century was provided by the parents at their own expense and the schools had no control of it. State Superintendent of Public Schools John R. Kirk, one of the first and most vigorous proponents of the transportation of school children at public expense, wrote the following in his annual report for 1898:

In selecting...school sites precedence should be given villages, postoffices and other points at or near crossroads so as to make the schools easily accessible by the ordinary wagon roads. With the consolidation of districts will come after a little while provision for conveying the children to and from school in covered wagons.... It may take a half dozen years of agitation to bring about any deliberate consideration of the question. But with the rapidly growing appreciation of the absolute necessity for the better education of our children, especially the farmers' children, men will cease to ridicule an idea merely because it is new to them. ... The question is: Shall our country boys and girls be allowed advantages to compare with those furnished the city children?

The State Teachers Association and State Superintendent of Public Schools W. T. Carrington pressed the needs of transportation and the General Assembly passed an act permitting school districts under certain conditions to pay transportation costs. However, the Governor vetoed the act.

The legal authorization of district financed transportation was ushered in by the passage of a law in 1907 which authorized funds to be spent for transporting elementary children living in districts with an enumeration of less than twenty-five to another school. This law gave legal support to the widely accepted principle in educational circles that the district should transport children living beyond certain distances from school in order that equivalent educational opportunities be offered them.

The next law, passed in 1911, extended this permissive use of district funds to the transportation of pupils within any district, including consolidated school districts, living more than one half mile from school.

Wyaconda, in 1913, followed by Ellington, Jameson and Hume in the order mentioned were the first consolidated districts to transport. The schools used horse drawn factory built wagons, equipped with all wood bodies, with adequate glass

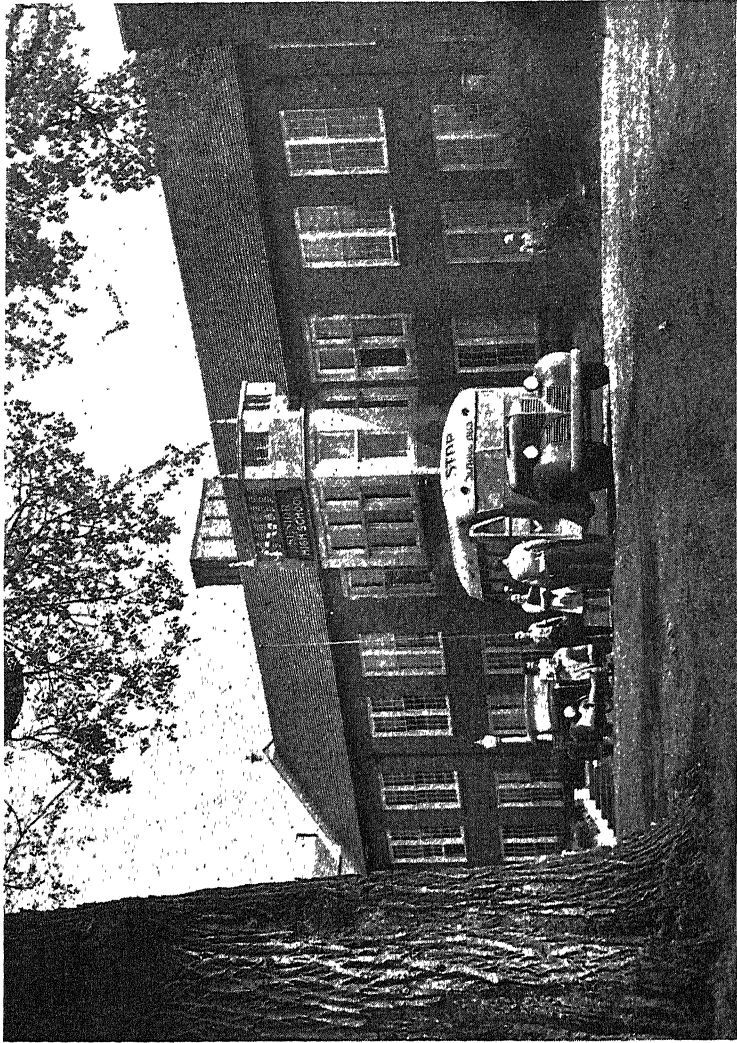


Photo by Townsend Godsey, Hollister.
Transportation of Rural Students.

windows, and with longitudinal padded seats, capable of seating eighteen to twenty pupils. The attendance area was limited to a radius of five miles, with routes being covered in from one to one and half hours.

The numbers of children transported, increased slowly, during the period of local district financed transportation; that is, from 1907 to 1931. The rural communities were unwilling or unable to raise through local taxation sufficient revenue to finance a system of adequate school centers with transportation provided for all pupils living beyond a reasonable walking distance from such centers.

The collective efforts of educators and laymen concerned with rural education and rural life, sponsored a statewide survey in 1929. Some of the recommendations of the survey staff were partially incorporated in the 1931 School Law, which ushered in the period of state participation in defraying the cost of school transportation. Payment of cost not to exceed three dollars per month was guaranteed by the state for all pupils residing within a district who were transported two or more miles to a central school. The Legislature in 1933 amended the transportation law, extending its benefits to pupils transported across district lines. The next Legislature in 1935 changed the amendment by limiting non-resident transportation payments to high school students. If the law had provided for substantial state payments on non-resident elementary children's transportation and tuition costs, it is possible that a majority of the small one-room rural schools would have closed by 1945.

The smaller high schools embarked upon a vigorous and competitive drive for non-resident high school students which continued from the inception of the 1931 School Law to the present day. Transportation of non-resident high school students, principally by bus, reached 40,795 in 1943-44.

Since the State paid only a fractional part of its guarantee from 1931 through 1940, many high schools charged students or rural districts a transportation fee, ranging from fifty cents to actual cost, less the state payments. In 1945 the cost for transportation averaged \$6.00 per month, per child, in more than half the counties of the state. About one half of the 682 high school districts managing a transportation program in 1945 charged a fee, the other half met the deficit from local school funds.

A summary of transportation data for Missouri in 1942 showed that 94,401 children were transported in 2,289 busses over 2,977 routes, which averaged on the morning run 21 miles in length. The median time spent enroute by busses was 69 minutes, which necessitated an average driving speed of eighteen miles an hour.

Sixty-two per cent of the 2,289 busses used by the school districts of the State were contracted and thirty-eight per cent were district owned. One hundred twenty-two cars and twenty team drawn wagons, were used in the school managed transportation programs. Private cars and public utilities in the large urban centers were used to a considerable, but unknown, extent in conveying children to school.

Enlarged School Districts

A brief history of the movement to enlarge school districts in Missouri was presented in Chapter II which gave the story of the development of education. As was here indicated the question has been under consideration for more than a half century with some enlargements resulting. However, since the passage of the 1931 School Law, there have been practically no enlargements in spite of the fact that this was one of the chief purposes of the law.

A number of states recently have passed laws designed to enlarge the size of school districts and many surveys have been made to determine what reasonable steps should and could be taken in this direction. Since there has been so much recent activity with respect to the question, some of the reasons proposed in support of enlarging school service areas will be presented.

In the act providing for the procedure of enlarging school districts in the State of Washington, the following purposes were stated:

1. More nearly equalize educational opportunity for pupils of the common schools.
2. Higher degree of uniformity of tax rates among districts.
3. Wiser use of public funds expended for the support of the common schools.

A recently published excellent summary of some of the advantages of enlarged school service areas follows:

1. A reduction of per-class or per capita costs.
2. A greater equalization of local tax burden.
3. A decrease in the number of teachers needed.
4. An increase in the preparation, experience and tenure of teachers.
5. Better educational achievement by pupils.
6. Broader curricula.
7. An increase in the instructional time for each pupil or each class.
8. A longer school term.
9. Improved attendance.
10. Better school plants and equipment.
11. Greater economy and efficiency in the administration and supervision of schools.

Enlargement of School Service Areas in Other States

As has been indicated, a number of other states have undertaken by various means to enlarge their outworn school district systems that were established in the early days of statehood. A brief summary of what has been done in some of the other states is taken from *School District Reorganization*, Publication No. 130, Kansas Legislative Council.

There are two principal methods by which comprehensive reorganizations have been carried out in other states:

1. A designated state or local agency is directed to carry out specific requirements concerning minimum standards fixed by the legislature.
2. A county committee is directed by law to survey the existing schools and formulate a plan of reorganization which may be effective either with or without approval by a state agency or popular vote in the districts affected.

Wisconsin

Wisconsin illustrates the first method of reorganizing school districts. In 1939, the legislature directed the state superintendent, on his own motion, to attach districts with valuations of less than \$100,000 to contiguous districts.

During the first three years, 800 low-valuation districts were attached to other districts by the state superintendent. In making these attachments, the objectives were to give the pupils the benefit of attending conveniently located schools having from twenty to twenty-five pupils, equalizing teacher loads and tax burdens, and securing reasonable educational returns from state and county school aid funds.

It has been estimated that approximately twenty-five per cent has been saved by these reorganizations. Local opposition was reported to have become less pronounced as the program advanced and there seems to have been little question concerning the beneficial educational results of the reorganizations.

New Mexico

The New Mexico law of 1941 constitutes another illustration of reorganization by the enforcement of minimum standards set by the legislature. This act provided for the mandatory closing of elementary schools having less than twelve pupils in average daily attendance (and high schools having less than thirty pupils), and the consolidation of these districts with contiguous units the following year. This law has resulted in a reduction from 960 districts in 1941 to 580 in 1944, without an increase in the number of bus transportation routes.

Washington

Substantial accomplishments in reorganizing school districts have been made in the state of Washington. A total of 628 of the 1,323 districts in the state in 1941 have already been involved in reorganization plans, and it is expected that the total number of school districts will eventually be reduced to 329.

To accomplish this purpose, a committee was created in each county consisting of from seven to thirteen representative citizens. The duty of this county committee was to pre-

pare a comprehensive plan for reorganization of school districts in the county and submit such plan to the state committee within one and one-half years.

A state committee of nine members was set up to aid the county committees in carrying out their powers and duties and to approve plans submitted by local committees. Reorganization plans must be approved by a majority of the voters residing within the boundaries of the proposed new districts.

Oregon

In 1939, Oregon adopted a two-year organization program featuring county committees of seven members, and a state commission consisting of the state board of education. If the plan submitted by the county committee conformed to the state standards based on the requirements of the law, the state commission issued orders of adoption.

Plans became effective at the beginning of the ensuing school year, except where rejected at a meeting called by petition of ten per cent of the voters in each of the original districts. While only thirty-eight of the 243 recommended changes were adopted during the short period that the law was in effect, consolidations under other statutory provisions have brought the total reduction in the number of districts to more than 100.

Arkansas

Arkansas made substantial accomplishments in reorganizing school districts during the period of 1927 to 1933, during a campaign sponsored by the county superintendents and the state department of education. Additional consolidations since that time have resulted in a total reduction in the number of districts from 4,711 to less than 2,800.

Reorganizations were affected under a law in which the majority of qualified electors in an area could consolidate by petition or election. A financial incentive to consolidate was provided through a subsidy from the state equalization fund for the erection of new buildings and for increases in salaries.

New York

In New York a considerable number of one-teacher districts have been reorganized into 269 central rural school districts since 1925. Many of these central districts include from ten to

fifteen of the original districts and have enrollments which average 400 pupils.

The law authorizes the state commissioner of education to lay out boundaries for proposed central districts, which may be adopted by a majority of the qualified voters attending special meetings called upon the petition of fifteen residents and taxpayers. A definite incentive for the formation of central rural districts was afforded through a program of state aid. One-half of the transportation costs and one-fourth of the building costs approved by the commissioner of education was made available to central districts from state funds.

The Colorado Plan

A report on school district reorganization for Colorado recommends a county committee of from seven to eleven members, including the county superintendent, highway supervisor, a citizen from each county commissioner district, and one superintendent from each of the several classes of school districts in the county. An appointed state commission of five members would be required to submit findings and recommendations to the governor and the legislature for legislative and executive action by the end of three years.

Michigan Recommendations

Organization of school districts on a community basis, with facilities for the maintenance of both elementary and high schools under a single board of education, has been recommended for the entire state by the Michigan Public Education Study Commission.

All rural school districts and all districts of less than 10,000 population would be classified as fourth class school districts. These would be reorganized on the basis of permanent natural centers of population large enough to have a minimum enrollment of 360 pupils for grades 7 to 12. The plan contemplates that more than one elementary school could be maintained in the district for pupils of the first six grades depending on the number and location of pupils, school house facilities, transportation requirements, etc.

The Michigan report recommends a county reorganization committee of nine members, consisting of both lay and profes-

sional persons, to prepare a plan of reorganization mutually acceptable to the committee, to the boards of education of the districts affected and to the state superintendent. After a period of popular education as to the desirability of a plan, it would be submitted to the electors for their approval or disapproval.

Montana

Montana has approached the reorganization of school districts indirectly by providing state and county aid for payments of transportation costs, and by encouraging elementary pupils to attend grade schools in the places where high school pupils in the same family attend high school. The combined effect of the Montana laws apparently is to make the people of the various districts more favorable to disorganization and to voluntary consolidation with larger districts maintaining high schools.

Some Fundamental Considerations¹ In Determining School Service Areas

Every person within the state should be a resident of an administrative unit which provides free schools and services for all persons eligible by our Missouri Constitution.

Explanation: A satisfactory administrative unit will:

- (a) Make available to the parents of pre-school children, the services of the visiting teacher.
- (b) Make available, to all children of school age residing within the school unit, opportunities for educational training commensurate with their varying needs and with the needs of the society of which they form a part.
- (c) Make available to the adults of the community, a wide range of recreational, cultural, avocational and vocational opportunities.

The administrative unit should serve both rural and urban children without discrimination and should include any cities without exception wherever the needs of the surrounding areas are best served by such organization.

¹Prepared for the Technical Study Staff by Dr. W. W. Carpenter, Professor of Education, University of Missouri, at the request of the director.

Explanation: Rural children enter all the professions and semi-professions and follow all the skilled trades. They must not enter professional training handicapped by an inferior elementary, secondary or post-secondary experience.

The first requirement of the administrative organization is that it be so constituted as to provide a satisfactory educational program which shall be defined in terms of services.

Explanation: It is not possible in a small school district to provide the services of administration, supervision, health, recreation, library services, and the like, without undue cost. Our current study reveals that parents of rural children desire a broad vocational and cultural offering for their children.

The second requirement of the administrative organization is that for every child born in the district or who moves into the district, there are established permanent cumulative records which are faithfully kept up to date until the child is vocationally competent and beyond the legal school age.

Explanation: Legislation should make it a responsibility of the parents to inform the local school superintendent of the birth or death of a member of the family. Parents should also be responsible for immediately reporting to the superintendent any change in residence of any member of the family up to the age of twenty-one. Movement of families is so great in the United States and so little has been done in keeping continuing records of children who move, that a child may fail to appear at school one day and not be located by school authorities for years, if ever. Then there are literally thousands of children who do not enter school on time, some of them many years late, because authorities do not know that they exist, or, for selfish reasons, do nothing about it. Parents should be just as much obligated to report changes to the proper authorities as they are to make an income tax return.

Another requirement of the administrative organization is that the causes of non-school attendance of children within the legal age limits are recognized and are removed.

Explanation: A study of why children do not attend school reveals the following reasons: sickness in the home; poverty in the home; inability of the home to cooperate; distance from school; lack of provision for those who do not, or cannot, profit

by schools as now organized, such as the deaf, dumb, crippled, hard of hearing, semi-sighted, mentally retarded, truant, vicious, etc.; desire of parents or guardians to profit by the labor of the child; antagonistic attitude of the home toward the school and failure of the home to appreciate the opportunities that the school offers to its children; and the organization of the school—the school may be so poorly organized that children do not profit by attendance.

However, none of these reasons should operate today. In fact, they are excuses rather than reasons. If we are to remain a democracy, it is essential that none of the above-mentioned excuses keep children from attending school.

Another requirement is that the satisfactory unit shall provide for democratic control.

Explanation: The people in a small district which transports their pupils to a neighboring high school have lost all democratic control of the secondary education of their own children. They have allocated the control to some one other than their own representatives.

In determining the possibility of any area as an administrative unit these things should be considered: number of children of school age sufficient for a well balanced elementary, secondary and post-secondary program that can be maintained economically; roads or other means of transportation; topography; significant traditions and customs, and the trends in population and economic resources; trade centers and social centers.

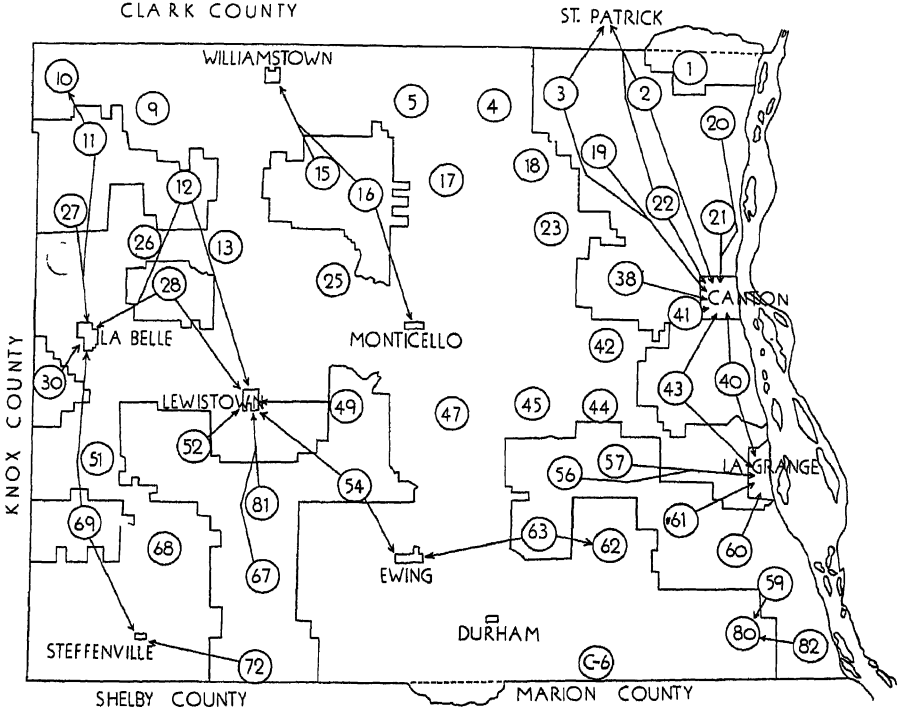
Explanation: Not long after the close of the war we will be looking for ways and means of preventing school children competing with returned soldiers. Without a doubt, this will be one of the factors which will demand a lengthened secondary education period. This will place a heavy burden on the public schools in that they do not now offer the types of courses that will attract and interest older secondary pupils.

The development of enlarged areas will be somewhat retarded by roads which will not stand the bus traffic. However, it should be understood that the criterion here is not roads as were or are, but roads that should and will be built.

Present Legal Provisions for Enlarging School Service Areas in Missouri

In order to determine what could be done on the basis of present Missouri statutory provisions, a careful study of the school laws was made. It was found that, in general, there are five different lines of procedure that may be followed in enlarging school service areas under existing laws. These five lines of procedure may be described as follows: (1) Formation of new districts or change of boundary lines; (2) Enlarged school district according to the 1931 School Law; (3) Annexation; (4) Consolidation under Sec. 10,487, Revised Statutes of Missouri, 1939; and (5) Consolidation under the old consolidation laws. The step by step procedures and the legal requirements for each step have been compiled and are on file in the offices of the State Department of Education.

MAP 6
Transportation of Closed Rural Schools, Lewis County, 1944-45.
CLARK COUNTY



EXPLANATION

Numbered circle gives location and number of school.

Arrow points to school to which pupils are transported.

Closed schools are enclosed in lines.

Example: Districts 15 and 16 closed and transport to Williamstown and Monticello.

Missouri School Service Area Studies

On the basis of the foregoing fundamental consideration in determining school services areas and the present legal provisions for the same, ten to twenty careful studies of the possibilities of the enlargement in local situations have been made in the last several months. These detailed studies are not presented in this report for lack of space and other reasons. However, they are on file in the office of the State Department of Education.

CHAPTER XII

RECOMMENDATIONS

AS A RESULT of many conferences, committee meetings, a large amount of correspondence and many detailed studies by the Technical Study Staff and others, a voluminous amount of facts and opinions was collected. On the basis of the foregoing, a number of recommendations are presented. These are designed to accelerate educational progress in Missouri by adapting its program of rural education to modern conditions and needs. Also, it is the hope of all concerned that the requirements for the future of our democracy have been anticipated, at least in part. The fundamental concepts basic to these recommendations are that rural education and related rural life in a democracy must be: (1) socially desirable, (2) educationally efficient, and (3) financially sound.

School Service Areas

The facts regarding the educational, the economic and social conditions of rural education and of related rural life, support the conclusion that the two major problems now confronting the people of Missouri are what to do about the small rural school, and what to do about the small high school. However, in the last analysis, these two problems are an integral part of the continuing struggle of the people of Missouri to equality of educational opportunity for all of their children.

It is the conclusion of the committees making this study that there must be a *thorough-going and fundamental reorganization of the framework of the public school system of Missouri which will provide adequate school service areas, if these two problems are to be solved satisfactorily*. Therefore, recommendations are made requiring legislation, as well as those recommendations requiring no immediate legislation.

The establishment of desirable school service areas is more than the process of future legislative enactments. A study of the existing Missouri statutes revealed that much may be accomplished in the way of providing more desirable school service areas for the rural boys and girls. The providing of ade-

quate school service areas is now retarded because of an inadequate road system in many areas and the lack of planning on the state and local levels. Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. The professional and lay organizations, state and local, study the problems of school service areas and develop definite plans for solving them insofar as possible under existing laws and conditions.
2. The State Department of Education assume the responsibility of initiating and directing the development of a state plan as suggested above.
3. Further, the State Department of Education make provision to assist local school people in determining desirable school service areas.

For developing desirable school service areas, the following recommendations are made:

1. Establish Permanent Local County School Committees
 - (a) *Membership*—At least six leading citizens of the county and the county superintendent of schools acting as secretary with the right to vote in case of a tie.
 - (b) *Election of Members*—To be elected by the County School Board Conventions.
 - (c) *Duties*—To study the problems of providing adequate educational facilities and proposing desirable school service areas.
 - (d) The report of the Local County School Committee to be approved by the State Board of Education.
2. Provide that the taxpayers of a proposed local school service area approve or reject same by majority vote.
3. Provide that State Board of Education shall be the State School Service Area authority with the following functions:
 - (a) To keep before the people of the State the question of school service areas and develop criteria for determining desirable school service areas.

- (b) To approve the reports of the Local County School Committees.
- (c) On request of the County School Committee to provide help in making studies of school service areas.
- (d) To organize a division or department of School Service Areas with an adequate and capable staff.

School Buildings and Equipment

It is estimated that at least forty to fifty million dollars is needed immediately to provide adequate school plant facilities for the public elementary and secondary schools of the State. Further, there has been set aside by the General Assembly sixteen million dollars to meet post-war needs. As has been indicated in the report, a tax levy sufficient to provide adequate building facilities in many instances would be confiscatory upon local property. Therefore, it is recommended that:

The state make a greater and more substantial contribution to school plant facilities than present laws provide, but this contribution must be predicated upon an acceptable school service area.

This requires legislative enactment by the present General Assembly since it is an immediate and pressing problem.

Transportation of School Children

On the basis of the facts included in the report, it is recommended that:

1. The State Department of Education approve bus routes in such manner as to eliminate active competition between school service areas.
2. Lay and professional organizations lend all assistance possible in helping to provide all-weather roads to take care of the transportation of the children in properly organized school service areas.
3. The state's contribution to the transportation be sufficient to maintain efficient transportation facilities for all school children needing them.

All-Weather Roads

The recent increase in the transportation of rural pupils, particularly to high schools, represents a great advance for those children on or near all-weather roads. However, fifty-four per cent of the farm homes are still on dirt roads, which means that transportation facilities are lacking for approximately half of the rural children of the state. Some means must be found of improving most of the remaining dirt roads, if proper rural education is to be provided. With the great decline in one-room rural school attendance, it is quite evident one of the most important means of increasing the facilities for rural education is the improvement of the roads in the rural areas. Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. Every effort should be exerted to develop all-weather roads as rapidly as possible.
2. The bulk of these all-weather roads should be constructed expeditiously and at moderate cost, but of such character that they will care for ordinary busses, farm trucks, and similar vehicles.
3. Such a development of all-weather roads would be in addition to the first class highways and farm-to-market roads now being developed.

State's Contribution to Financing Local Public Elementary and Secondary Education

The study has revealed that on the basis of the best information available, Missouri ranks approximately tenth among the forty-eight states in the Union in ability to support the kinds of schools that the people desire for their children. Likewise, it is found that Missouri ranks twenty-third among the several states in the amount of state school money it contributes to the support of the local schools. Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. The state continue to contribute one-third of the general revenue to the support of public elementary and secondary education.
2. When a desirable school service area is established, modification in the distribution of state school funds

should be made, if necessary, in order to provide the needed financial support to carry on an adequate educational program.

Curricular Offerings

The studies of the curricular offerings and the conditions under which the rural schools now operate show a very definite inadequacy in the education of the rural boys and girls for living in our democratic society. Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. The school term be lengthened to at least nine months by legislative enactments.
2. Wherever feasible the class size should be made sufficiently large to provide a desirable classroom unit of fifteen to twenty-five children. This is possible in many instances only by providing an adequate school service area.
3. The curricular offerings should be keyed to the needs of the rural boys and girls.
4. Rural high school students should have a choice of vocational agriculture, home economics, business training, trade and industries or general shop, art, music, vocational and educational guidance, health and physical education and a well-rounded extra-curricular program, as well as the usual college preparatory courses. This is feasible only when there are enough high school students in the school service area to have classes of reasonable size and sufficient funds are available to maintain such a program.

Teachers

The recent acute shortage of properly prepared teachers has made the public more aware of the importance of the teacher in the educational system. Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. The whole problem of training and certification of teachers be re-examined in the light of the needs of rural areas.

2. The teachers should be trained to teach in the rural areas.
3. The salaries of teachers should be made commensurate with their training, their professional responsibilities, and their contributions to society.
4. Adequate living facilities including teacherages should be provided by the community. Provisions for social and recreational activities should be considered by the community.

Health Provisions for Schools

In the light of the facts revealed by the study, it is recommended that:

1. Adequate health and physical education should be taught in all schools, and this should include corrective measures in so far as this is within the range of possibilities.
2. Facilities should be provided for health examinations for all children and provision should be made for some medical care for those who are unable to have private care.
3. A complete set of health records should be kept for every child as a part of the permanent school record.

Library Services

In a school system that meets the modern needs of educating rural boys and girls, a wealth of reference material is necessary. This requires an ample and varied supply of the proper kinds of books, magazines, charts, maps, reports, etc. Likewise, in carrying on adult education, a modern library is one of the most important facilities. Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. Superintendents, principals, teachers and boards of education provide much more liberally for modern reference material for the children in the rural schools, elementary grades and in the high schools, and the children should be trained in the efficient use of the library facilities.

2. The State Department of Education should have as one of its requirements for approval of a high school that of modern library facilities for the elementary grades in the system.
3. A county-wide library system, including mobile libraries, should be established in each county suitable for the needs of children and adults, and it should be administered in cooperation with the local library committee and the county superintendent of schools.

Education of the Negro Children

The data gathered in the study show very clearly that the proper education of the Negro children presents a difficult problem from many points of view. With two facts in mind, the high concentration of Negro children in the southeast section of the state and the scattered Negro school population in other sections, it is recommended that:

1. The State should make adequate provision for the proper training of the teaching personnel.
2. Provision should be made for desirable educational services, including vocational training.
3. The only tenable thesis in a democracy is that of providing equal educational opportunities for all, regardless of race or color.
4. The curricular offerings should meet the educational needs of the Negro children, and all should be trained to the limits of their capacities.

Extension of Educational Facilities

Man's education extends from the cradle to the grave. Men crave knowledge. To fulfill these conditions a great deal has been done by many different organizations in Missouri. However, only a few of the possibilities have been realized. Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. There should be more unification and coordination of the work in adult education.
2. The school system should become the center of adult education in many of the communities.

3. Facilities should be provided for kindergartens when a reasonable number of children are available in school service areas as now established by law or that may be established.
4. The State Board of Education provide for a careful study of the needs and possibilities of establishing "specific schools" that have been made possible by Article IX, Section I of the new Constitution.

Health Services for Rural Areas

The war has made very acute the problem of providing adequate health services for the rural areas. The conditions found by the committees indicate that there is a very real need for immediate action to remove some of the serious conditions. Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. The General Assembly, if legislation is necessary, act at a very early date to meet the current situation.
2. Plans be developed for establishing a system of hospitals that will take care of the health needs of those areas lacking such facilities.
3. The various legitimate hospital and medical care organizations press their campaigns for extending these services.

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